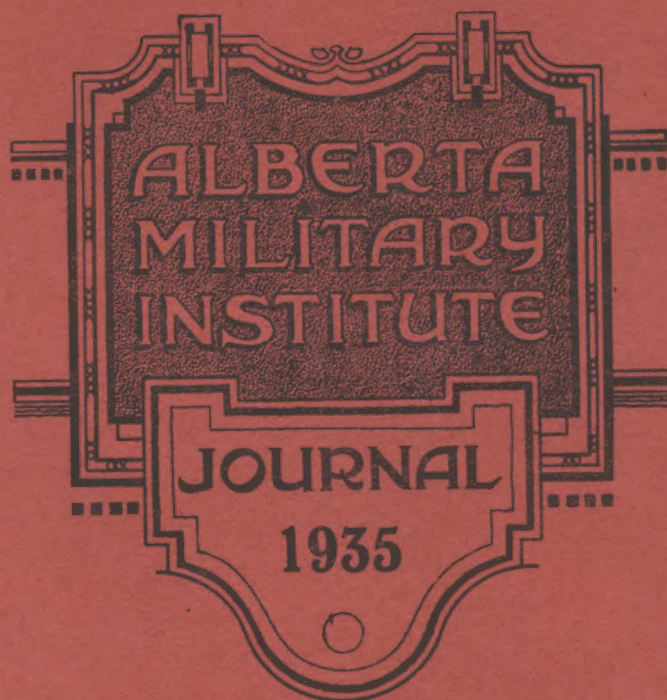




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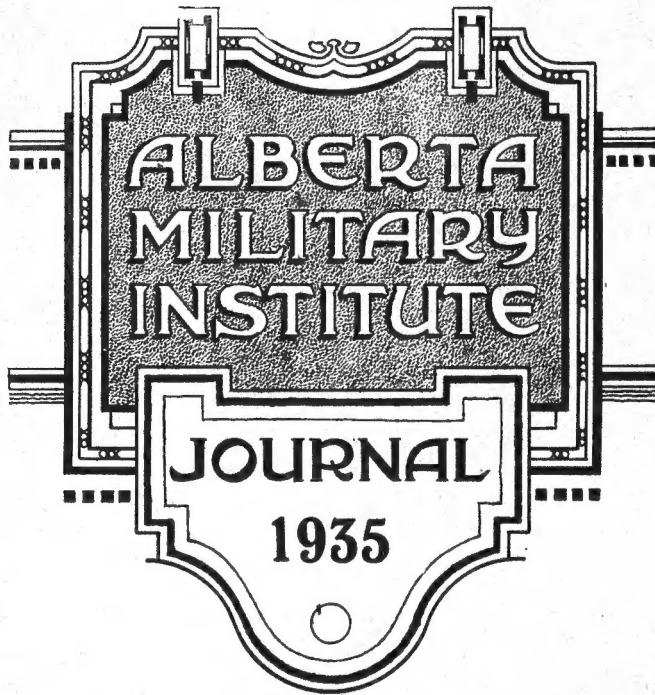
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In Memoriam

Major T. C. Bruce

Major B. F. Rhodes

Capt. E. E. Drysdale

Lieut. H. L. O'Rourke

Capt. F. E. Gully

In Memoriam George V.

They have laid him among other illustrious dead who were monarchs of England, this King-Emperor whose death we mourn—we who have served him at sea, on land and in the air.

Since the last issue of the Annual Journal our Empire has been bereaved of its father and the world of a kindly friend.

He was a Christian gentleman, wherefore we commend his soul to God with Christian formulas, praying that he may rest in peace and that light perpetual may shine upon him. But the Supreme Being who has received the spirit of George the Fifth is the God of Abraham, Isaac and Israel; of Christian, Musselman, Buddhist and Hindu and all who call upon Him by whatsoever Name.

It is into His keeping they have commended the spirit of George the Fifth.

—A. C. B.

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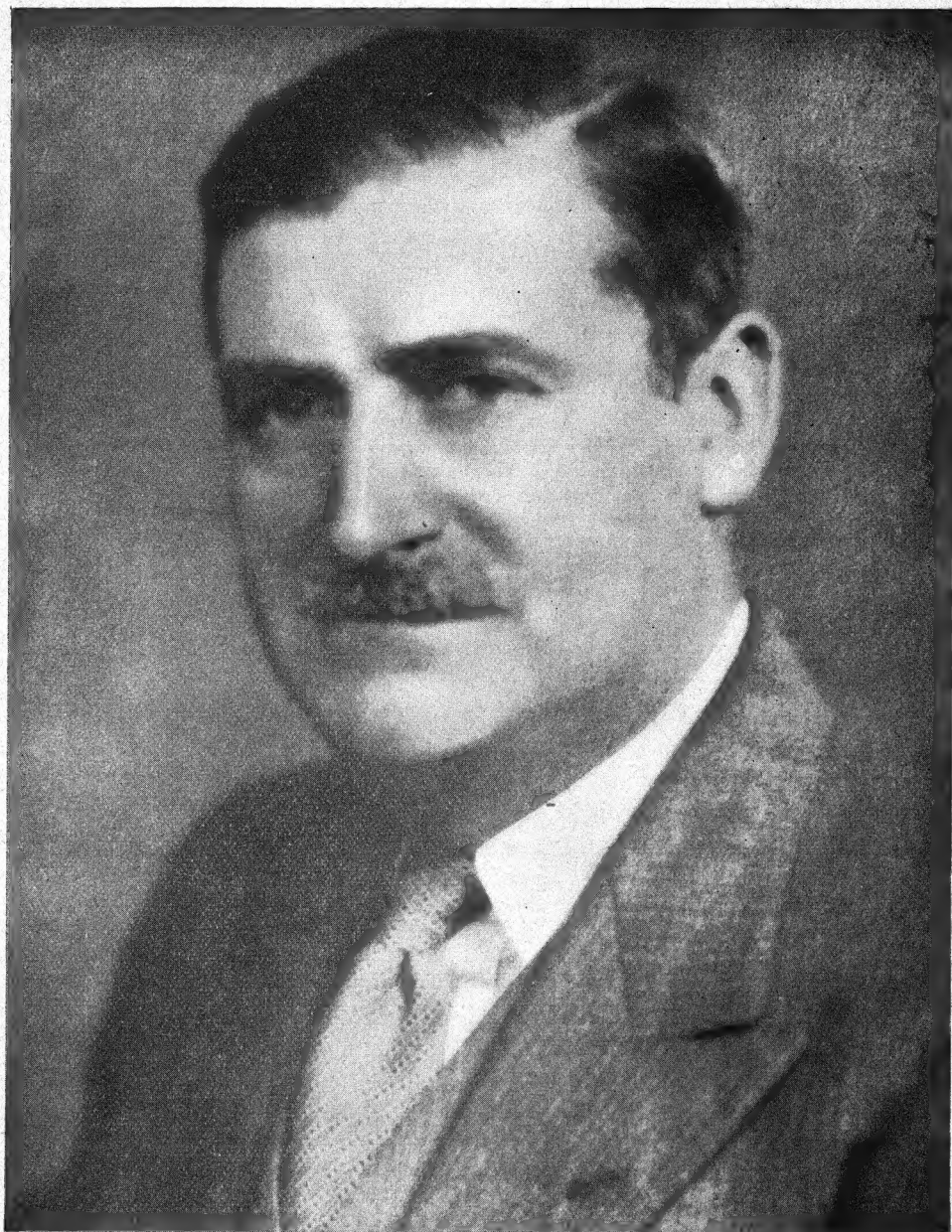
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1935 Annual Journal

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CALGARY, ALBERTA

MAJOR A. C. BALLANTINE, Editor

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Sixteenth Year

December, 1935

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The Outlook

*By Major-General the Hon. W. A. Griesbach, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O.,
K.C., V.D.*

THE WORLD today is, as compared with the world of one hundred and fifty years ago, a small place. Then great wars, famines and pestilences could occur in one part of the world and the rest of the world would not only be unaffected but entirely ignorant of such happenings. Today it is otherwise. The happenings in remote parts are known everywhere tomorrow, and a train of reactions, repercussions and consequences are set in motion.

My address to you tonight is in the nature of an appreciation of the situation. I seek to set out in some sort of order the known facts, from them I attempt to draw reasonable conclusions. The reasonableness of these conclusions is a matter of opinion. If towards the end of this address I pass from the judicial to the partizan it will be merely for the purpose of putting forward the thought that the British Empire is worth preserving and that Canada may find within a united and puissant empire, peace, prosperity and security.

* * * * *

Japan.

JAPAN is an island empire. A small area. A large and overfilling population. Limited natural resources and raw materials. A courageous, resolute, patriotic and martial people. The form of government is superficially similar to that of Great Britain. There is the sovereign, the upper and the lower houses and the cabinet. There the similarity largely ends for the old ruling class is still in the saddle and the fighting forces are directly under the crown and not under parliament. Frequently in the past five years the policy of the fighting forces has been seen to be at variance with the policy of the government on its civil and diplomatic side. To 98 per cent. of the population the Emperor is a demigod descended from the Sun. On this whole basis the nation can be and is regimented by propaganda or what may pass for such. The "thinkers of dangerous thoughts" are not a factor. Success justifies all things.

In recent years Japan has become a manufacturing country, producing her wares by mass production at a lower cost than any other country; due to her different standard of living (not necessarily a lower standard of living) she has been able to put her goods into all countries over any normal tariff and sell at a profit. Copyright, trade marks, and property in inventions mean nothing to her business men. They are not necessarily unscrupulous, they have merely a different

The lecturer read the lecture but interpolated certain observations which appear here in small type.

view point. The Japanese are artistic and are creators in art but in all else they are copiers of the first magnitude. From electric light bulbs to battleships they can copy and imitate with a fidelity which staggers the original producers of these commodities.

Given raw materials and markets the Japanese can and may lead the world in the manufacture of goods. The problem which confronts that country is raw materials and markets, for her necessary raw materials are found in other countries and her markets are being closed to her by all manufacturing countries whose industries she endangers by her cheap production. You have then an energetic, industrious and intelligent people with a highly developed faculty to produce, a certain form of government as outlined, limited raw materials and natural resources. An overcrowded population in urgent need of employment, vanishing markets and a powerful and efficient military establishment.

These factors indicate, indeed compel, the national policy which in effect is to use the military establishment for the acquisition of raw materials and markets.

Clausewitz has pointed out that war is a mere continuation of policy. Examine any modern war you like—go back to the outbreak of hostilities and there you find national policy. Follow that policy back and you come to a social, racial and economic situation which determined the policy.

In defiance and violation of the covenant of the League of Nations, the Kellogg Pact and the Nine Power Treaty, Japan has in the last five years possessed herself by force of Manchuria and other provinces of China. The process continues by an orderly progression of events.

Some writer has pointed out that European nations in the past have sought to control the trade of China from the sea front. Japan takes an opposite view and seeks to control China from the North and West hence her carefully calculated moves into Inner and now Outer Mongolia and her continually growing demands upon China all leading to control, if not conquest. With such control or conquest an established fact, Japan will have completed the first phase of her struggle for raw materials and markets which she will hold for her exclusive use and benefit. Should she arm and discipline the millions of China nothing short of a coalition of all the great powers could check her triumphant progress.

Having control of China, French Indo-China and Malaya come next naturally and inevitably; India, Australia and New Zealand later on. Such is the Japanese dream. "Asia for the Asiatics" under Japanese leadership will strike a responsive chord in the bazaars of the Far East from Persia to Kamchatka. All that is required is the promise or hope of success. Not for nothing is the banner of Japan the emblem of the rising sun. If you say that it cannot be done the answer is that it has been done by a similar race, the Mongols under Ghengis Khan in the thirteenth century.

Russia.

THE frontiers of Russia march with those of China and Japan. Already there is friction. Again and again Russia has swallowed her pride and taken rebuffs and insults from Japan without recourse to war. The reason is simple. Japan knows, and Russia knows, that in such a war Russia could not win. Siberia and a large slice of Asiatic Russia are in cold storage for Japan. Russia in the past has claimed an interest in China based on trade relations, proximity and the like. In addition she has claimed an interest in China because of the fact that a large part of China is under a Communistic government. Russia therefore stands across the path of Japan in China, for Japan will not suffer or permit Communism and intends as a first step to liquidate that doctrine in China. Russia is averse to war with Japan for several reasons. In the first place she is almost certain of defeat; in the next place such defeat would have a widespread repercussions throughout the East, damaging to Russian prestige. It would exhaust Russia financially and perhaps economically and possibly prepare the way for counter revolution in Russia and lay Russia open to attack by her European enemies. Russia vis-a-vis Japan is much in the position of a big man chained by one arm to a stout post with one arm free but unable to move or exert his strength. Russia in Asia relies on one line of railway which experts agree could not supply more than three hundred thousand men. The supply situation determines the whole situation.

At the moment, and for some time to come, Russia will be fully occupied with her internal economic and social experiments; for the fruition of these peace is essential. The detention of 500,000 political prisoners in Russia and the existence of many hundreds of thousands of political exiles without Russia serves to indicate an internal condition which does not make for national unity.

On her Western European frontier stand many nations who would rejoice in her impotence from any cause and beyond is the menace of Germany.

Thus on her Eastern and Western frontiers stand potent and potential enemies. No wonder that Russia swallows the insults of Japan, joins the League of Nations and negotiates and seeks to negotiate non-aggression with neighboring nations large and small, and makes alliances where she may.

The United States.

THE United States is an unknown quantity. Its form of Government, its press and its people, make speculation difficult. Its non-reaction in the face of Japanese defiance of the Kellogg Pact and the Nine Power Treaty in both of which she was vitally interested, its curious neutrality declarations both legislative and departmental; its present apparent lack of policy in the matter of supporting or failing to support sanctions against Italy opens the possibility that that policy may be nullified by the action of the United States. As the Christian Science Monitor has remarked it would indeed be a curi-

ous thing if the attempt of the League to punish a violator of the covenant of the League of Nations and the Kellogg Pact were to fail because of the action of the United States.

I should point out that the United States do not belong to the League of Nations. Their contribution to the enforcement of sanctions against Italy is based upon a statute or a resolution of Congress passed last session in which it is declared, *inter alia*, that the United States will not permit the supply of the "implements of war" (or some such expression) to either or any belligerents in war. It is to be observed, first, that the United States must, under this legislation, apply the same restrictions to both Italy and Ethiopia and, second, (as might be expected), the interpretation of the legislation plays a prominent part. Just now the question is whether oil, cotton and the like come within the purview of the legislation. Unless it can be stretched to meet the League's request for United States assistance in the matter of enforcing sanctions against Italy of the kind and to the extent deemed necessary by the League, it is possible that the whole scheme of sanctions may fail for lack of United States co-operation.

The fact is, that beyond pious hopes and pompous admonitions, the United States refuses to recognize any obligation whatever to contribute towards world peace or international justice. The United States will protect its own vital interests against all comers, and will measure every international situation by that yard stick. It would probably move in defence of the Monroe doctrine, reserving to itself the right to interpret that doctrine. British policy ever seeks to avoid a conflict with the United States but British statesmen need never expect sympathy or support from that country unless its own vital interests are involved in common. In addition a curious inferiority complex seems to possess American public men and the belief exists that European statesmen are much too clever for the average American statesman and that the United States invariably gets the short end in all international arrangements. This complex is sufficiently prevalent to constitute a real factor in dealing with the United States. British statesmen should particularly note it. It should also be remembered that although the United States is a very rich, populous and powerful country (no American is in any doubt on that point) the bulk of the population live inland and, as Admiral Mahan has noticed, this population is not world-minded; in short it is distinctly provincial in its outlook and very ignorant of foreign affairs. Under its form of government neither the president, the cabinet or congress can at any given moment speak for the United States. There are, in fact, one hundred and thirty million negotiators to be envisaged in any international arrangement under consideration.

Germany.

GERMANY is re-armed. I draw your attention to the fact when a great industrial nation re-arms *de novo* she does so with substantial advantage to herself. Every part of her machine is new. She can profit by every experiment carried on elsewhere. She is not confronted with the problem of scrapping expensive but not altogether obsolescent equipment (the bugbear of all armed nations).

THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE ANNUAL JOURNAL

Years of restrained energy and enthusiasm burst forth and things can be done and attempted not possible elsewhere.

The form of government existing in Germany today, however undemocratic and autocratic it may be in peace, is pre-eminently designed for the preparation for, and the waging of war. The period of preparation rapidly approaches its culminating point.

Financially Germany is bankrupt. Her foreign trade is diminishing. She needs raw materials and markets. She is over peopled with a highly intelligent, patriotic, martial and homogeneous population of the highest physical type. Here again internal social and economic conditions dictate the national policy and that policy is, and must be, the acquisition of raw materials and markets, and room for racial expansion and perpetuation by negotiation if possible—by force if necessary.

The return of the colonies taken from Germany in the late war is a major objective of German policy. The present bailees are Great Britain, France, Australia, South Africa and Japan (to a small extent). It may be doubted though whether Germany really wants these colonies as badly as she may pretend to require them and for this reason: These colonies were never profitable; indeed they cost more than they produced but the main point is this: If Britain remains strong at sea such colonies could only exist by sufferance of the British Navy as the last war demonstrated. I think Germany's real objective lies in another direction.

The question of the return of these territories may be raised in a dozen different ways, and for a dozen different reasons, carefully sugar-coated in diplomatic language. The humanitarian and ethical aspects will be heavily stressed but behind it all lies the military might of Germany, and the desire of a tired world for repose.

Will France and the British Empire purchase peace for a time by the return of these erstwhile German colonies? I cannot answer that question.

Russia believes that Germany is arming against her. Russia believes that Germany has given up the idea of an overseas empire and further conflict with Great Britain and France; that what she desires is an extension of her European land mass where she can find markets and raw materials, and a population *in situ* capable of German regimentation. Such a locality is the Ukraine down to the Black Sea; inhabited by forty million people who veriferously proclaim that they are not Russians. It is true that between Russia and Germany lie a number of states, namely Hungary, Austria, Czechoslovakia, Poland, Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia. With the exception of Poland these are small nations with recently granted autonomy and usually in a disturbed condition. I draw your attention to the fact that within these buffer countries ten to fifteen millions of Germans live, who yearn to be restored to the German family.

German policy in recent years has led to an understanding with Poland, and that country may now be said to be lost to French in-

fluence. Poland fears and hates Russia and possibly, indeed probably, Germany can make a satisfactory arrangement with Poland in the event of a war with Russia.

The composition of the German navy indicates the German intention to make the Baltic a German lake.

Germany and Japan suffer from the same ailments. These ailments dictate a similar national policy—namely war for expansion, raw materials and markets. The objectives differ as to territory, but the means and the victim are the same. An alliance between Germany and Japan is indicated.

¹ Italy.

ITALY has a population of forty-four millions in an area slightly less than the Province of Alberta. She has limited natural resources and imports all her raw materials. She has an important industrial development. Italians are pre-eminent as engineers. Under Fascist rule Italy has been regenerated mentally, morally and physically. Italy is no longer a country of waiters, organ grinders and musicians. She has a powerful and modern navy, a strong and well equipped army and an efficient air force. Italy is a great power. Her form of government and social organization singularly fits her to wage war.

As we have seen in the case of Japan and Germany her social, racial and economic condition dictates her national policy which is one of expansion for territory, markets and raw materials. She has decided that Africa is the place where what she seeks may be found. In formulating her plans she has decided that there can be no expansion of her land mass in Europe, and that the scene of her activities in Africa must be separated from the home country by the Mediterranean. France has been settled with by a promise of help in Europe vis-a-vis Germany. There remains Great Britain.

Italians profess to believe, and may actually believe, that Great Britain is decadent. They observe that Great Britain's naval strength in the Mediterranean is negligible and that her armed forces in all branches have become weak. Malta, the most powerful British naval station in the Mediterranean, lies under the threat of Italian aerial bombardment. Strong in submarines Italy could seriously threaten traffic through the straits of Gibraltar. The assembly of a strong British Fleet in the Mediterranean would uncover the British Isles, British trade, and would denude the Far East of warships (the present case). Italian writers stress the refusal of the British people to submit themselves to military conscription although speaking loudly of collective security. They ridicule the mental, moral, and physical qualities of the recruits obtainable for the British army under the voluntary system (the height standard in the British army has been reduced to five feet two inches). In all these items Italian writers profess to see evidence of British decadence.

The Italian plan is first the conquest of Ethiopia and the enrollment of a great native army to be followed by the conquest of the

Soudan and Egypt, thus joining Libya-Soudan, Egypt and Ethiopia in a new Roman Empire in North Africa.

May I point out that General Smuts never discusses the Italian campaign in Ethiopia without drawing attention to the creation by Italy of a great black army in Africa.

To this end Malta and Egypt have been impregnated with Italian propaganda. Malta is Italian in sympathy, and Egypt has a substantial Italian population. Italian propaganda is also going out in Arabic for the edification of the Arab tribes across the Red Sea and in the Sudan. Three Italian divisions are now in Libya, and three hundred thousand Italian troops in Ethiopia. The Italian campaign proceeds in Ethiopia. Egyptian and British troops have taken up defensive positions in Western Egypt vis-a-vis Libya. Egypt is in a state of riot bordering on insurrection.

Apart from the ultimate design, the boldness of Italy in commencing her Ethiopian campaign has thoroughly aroused the British government since it discloses first a contempt for British power, and second threatens to establish Italy square across a main artery of the Empire, namely the Suez canal, and the Red Sea route to India, Malaya, Australia and New Zealand.

The reaction of the British government has been wholly unexpected by Italy. First Great Britain moved into the Mediterranean a powerful fleet. True, to do this she largely uncovered the British Isles, British sea-borne trade and the Far East naval stations, but the risks involved were not great in the present situation. It has, however, served to disclose to the British public the weakness of the navy. A circumstance which I think will be remedied as quickly as possible—say three years. This naval action revealed to Italy that the Ethiopian campaign could only be carried on on sufferance of the British Navy, provided the navy was not required elsewhere meanwhile.

Second, the British Government made a skilfull use of the League of Nations. Italy was declared an aggressor and her moral position was thoroughly damaged thereby. The application of sanctions by the League is presently pending.*

At this point we pass from the stage of known facts, or reasonable conclusions, to that of speculation.

Several theories are arguable. First, if Italy conquers Ethiopia it will arouse the black races of the world with disastrous consequences. Second, if sanctions and British action result in Italy withdrawing or failing to conquer Ethiopia it will be hailed as a victory for the black races over a white race with equally disastrous consequences. Most of the militant black races live in the British Empire. Third, if Italy retires from Ethiopia she is a beaten country and revolution at home may result. In any case she will have lost prestige and her value in the event of a European conflict will be minimized. She will nurse a grievance against Great Britain for many years which will determine her policy. A German-Japanese-Italian alliance might have distinct inducements for Italy.

*29th November, 1935.

British policy in this connection has undoubtedly tremendously embarrassed France who was counting on Italy as an ally, vis-a-vis Germany. It now remains to be seen what compensations Great Britain has been compelled to give France in return for the loss of an ally. I need not stress the point that any agreements or engagements between France and Great Britain relative to the European situation are of more than passing interest to the dominions.

Great Britain and France.

FOR THE purpose of this paper Great Britain and France may be discussed together. Both have vast territories sufficient to provide for expansion. Both countries have raw materials and markets under their respective flags. Social economic and racial conditions again determine national policy and both these countries desire peace, not only peace between themselves and others, but world peace, in which they may develop their holdings and grow rich and strong in so doing.

At once it is apparent that the League of Nations is an instrument of outstanding importance to both these countries since, if the League stands for anything, it is for the maintenance of peace by every nation abstaining from aggression, and by every nation keeping what it has. Russia, Belgium, France, Great Britain and Holland can cheerfully subscribe to this idea but to Japan, Italy and Germany it is highly immoral and inconvenient. Small nations subscribe to the League for the protection they hope to get out of it. The League of Nations envisages a static condition in which the 'haves' keep what they have and the 'have nots' are to be satisfied in that sphere of life in which Providence has placed them. But there is nothing static in human life. The world is on the move and if we could see it we would observe the processes by which some nations are going into decadence and other nations are forging to the front. Change is the order of life. The League's policy is an attempt for a while to check the orderly processes of nature. The alternative to the League's policy is war.

A governing factor, the key to French policy, is the fear of Germany which will probably persist until Germany is (a) triumphant or (b) is destroyed, which is unlikely; or (c) is deflected to other objectives, which is not impossible. The fear of Germany binds France to Great Britain which tends to make French policy subservient to British policy as witness the present difficulty with Italy.

Some sort of agreement exists between France and Russia for mutual support as against Germany. I do not know the terms of this agreement.

Just recently I have heard that a treaty has been made between France and Russia providing for each country to come to the assistance of the other vis-a-vis Germany but this treaty has not yet been ratified by the French parliament and is therefore not operative. Germany is putting forth tremendous efforts to prevent the ratification of the treaty and no doubt is offering France substantial undertakings designed to quiet France's fears of an attack by Germany upon France.

It is interesting to speculate on the possible re-actions of Great Britain and France should Germany make war on Russia for the Ukraine. The territorial interests of neither country would be involved. The outstanding question would be the ultimate balance of power. Would Great Britain and France stand aside? Is France bound by treaty to intervene? Can anyone say what the ultimate balance of power would be? If Germany is bound to make trouble for someone, why not the Russians?

British Empire Security.

BRITISH policy is peace with security. The period of expansion and acquisition is past; the period of consolidation and development is here. It is clear to me that any threat to the security of any part of the Empire should be immediately resisted. The world should be made aware of that intention: As well the component parts of the Empire should be prepared to make their contribution to the defence of the Empire as a whole. While in the past some hazy idea of this sort has manifested itself we face today a new situation, namely the determination of great armed states to rectify their unsatisfactory positions by war as an instrument of policy. The component parts of the British Empire are the natural objectives of these militant powers (we and the others similarly circumstanced in the matter of the possession of great rich areas thinly populated.) Carlyle spoke of wars for fun and wars for exercise. The war of the future will be war for survival—a matter of life or death. For the British Empire there can be no more wars on a limited liability basis. At the moment militant powers will choose their objectives where they hope to succeed most easily, as witness Japan versus China, and Italy versus Ethiopia, but the moment we show the slightest weakness in our dealings with them we invite attack.

We have one other enemy of which I must now speak. We war not only against principalities and powers but also against the flesh. Decadence is the name of that enemy. The history of mankind tells but one story of great nations. They died because they were rotten within. Indeed this is the natural end of all great nations. All we can really hope to do is to postpone decadence. Wealth, culture and refinement are the normal evidences of national greatness. The abuse of them is death. Too much wealth, culture and refinement interferes with the operation of natural law, namely that only by constant toil and struggle can we improve our social and economic position. Over-humanitarianism grows out of Wealth, Culture and Refinement, and the results are just as dangerous as benefits and favours extorted by force. To pay men, or feed, clothe and house them when they do no work destroys their souls and most of them will never work again. In England social legislation takes care of a man from the cradle to the grave. For this he gives no return. Two million people are out of work there supported by the State. The army is twenty thousand men short and the standard of height has been reduced to five feet two inches. Many fine looking fit young men prefer to be on the dole to serving in the army. Fifty years ago the standard of the British army was five feet eight. In those days

economic necessity drove fine men into the navy, army, mercantile marine and to the colonies. Today half the men in British ships of the mercantile marine are foreigners and there is no emigration.

In Canada and other parts of the Empire we follow the British lead, not to the same extent perhaps, but substantially and similar results are noticeable. In this atmosphere grow laziness of mind and body, pacifism, credulity approaching feeble mindedness, lack of a sense of responsibility, loss of patriotism and every ill from which the body politic can suffer. Politically it becomes increasingly difficult to put forward the best interests of the State, and the demagogue wins the day with his nostrums all designed to increase idleness and to ensure living without work. Some one will say that we could follow no other policy than to give doles. My answer is that we give doles because it is the easiest course, and we have the money to do it. In other words we have too much wealth, or we are abusing our wealth. We have laid the foundation for national decadence.

Do not misunderstand me. I am blaming no one. I am merely saying that we followed a certain course—the line of least resistance possibly. It would be better for us in the long run if we had had no money to spare for social services and less humanitarianism. This may sound harsh but if you will read Gibbons' "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire" you will get my point.

I observe that in Japan, Russia, Germany and Italy they know very little about humanitarianism. They are poor. Work or die is the rule with them. They take no chances with a democratic form of government.

In the light of your experience in our Dominion and in this Province you will agree with me that when we submit the vital interests of this country to the electorate we do take very grave chances. I support, as you all do, democratic institutions. I would resist any other form of government (save perhaps in a great national emergency) but it would be foolish to shut our eyes to the possibilities inherent in the situation.

They submit themselves to universal military training. They live the strenuous life because they have to. They may or may not be happy. They may suffer from many ills but decadence is not one of them. Of such stuff conquerors are made.

To arrest decadence there is one obvious remedy, universal military service. I will not labour you with the advantages to the individual, mentally, morally, and physically of universal military service. What I want to stress is the fact that in a democracy the government, no matter how sound it may be as individuals, must have a majority behind it. In making vital decisions, in carrying out difficult projects, the government must have the nation with it. If you sap the moral force of your people, if you destroy patriotism, if you breed pacifism, if you promote a cynical indifference to the honour and credit of the nation, if you put the hopes and fears and selfish inclinations of the individual above the welfare of the state, how can you expect from an electorate so rotted the capacity, the vision, and the understanding to make great and wise decisions, the courage, energy and resolution necessary for great endeavors and mighty enterprises?

As the hungry nations develop their policies, as the world drama unfolds itself, there will come to the people of the British Empire the necessity of making fearful and far-reaching decisions. Only sound people can come to sound decisions. As we decide so we determine the outcome. Either we hand on this great estate intact to those who come after us, or this proud Empire will go down in disaster, ruin and humiliation.

I note a tendency on the part of certain over-educated people to discuss moral values in relation to Empire wars in the past and hypothetical Empire wars of the future. They will take up arms in some cases, and not in others. They will take up arms in defence of Canada (presumably when the enemy has commenced his invasion) but not otherwise. And some there are who will not take up arms under any circumstances. It may be that in the past there have been unjust wars. Nothing much can be done about it now. We might, of course, give this country back to the Indians from whom we took it by force. None of these gentry have suggested that.

For the future there will be little debate about an Empire war. If my appreciation is correct we shall fight only in defence of what we have. It is too late now to discuss how we came by it. The question will be: Do we believe in the conception of a united Empire? Will we hang together, or will we hang separately?

Peace With Security

WHAT is it that we desire? What is the national aim? Surely it is peace. Peace with security. The opportunity to develop our country, our institutions, and our nation unhindered by foreign interference or intervention. How may we best secure the accomplishment of that aim or objective. By independence? No one has suggested it. By annexation to the United States? That idea has been dead for fifty years. What remains? One thing to make this Empire a living thing, as General Smuts has put it.

I believe that within the British Empire, Canada can have peace with security. That within the Empire she can work out her highest, happiest and best destiny, but she must also pull her weight. She must do her share. She must assume her obligations and stand by the consequences. And these consequences may be war and tribulation and sacrifice—but has any nation in all history attained to greatness without suffering?

I am aware that certain colonially minded people in Canada shrink from the implication of Canada as a nation in a united Empire. What they seem to want is the advantages of Empire connection without the obligations that go with it. Hence I say that they are colonially minded for that was our position fifty to twenty-five years ago. They sing, "O Canada, we stand on guard for Thee", but forget to add that we do so at much less expense per capita than any other part of the Empire, or any other civilized country. Such a position is not consistent with our sovereign status, our dignity, or our declared equality with other states in the Empire.

What is the test of Empire? Surely it is the obligation commonly accepted by each part of the Empire to go to the assistance of every other part. Without the common acceptance of that obligation there is no Empire. That, then, is the obligation which we must accept and publicly proclaim, and thereby we shall make the Empire a living thing. Incidentally I know of nothing which would cause the hungry nations to give us a wide berth so much as this declaration would do.

If we stand up manfully to all that this obligation implies, we shall fight only in just wars for the defence of the common property, our lives, and our honour, and we shall enjoy such peace and security as we shall deserve. We should ask for no more—we should expect no less, in this imperfect world.

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John Salmond of Balaklava

By Major A. R. Gibson

JOHN SALMOND was one of my boyhood's earliest recollections. I remember him in 1890—a great man, over six feet tall, broad-shouldered and straight as a lance, his cheeks ruddy and his chest covered with a great white spade of a beard. He was an important character in the village for was not he a survivor of the Thin Red Line at Balaklava? He lived very quietly and behaved himself becomingly for 364 days a year on his princely pension of sixty cents a day; but on the 25th of October donned his medals, flourished the wonderful silk handkerchief given him by Queen Victoria, and celebrated royally, for was not that Balaklava day?

Needless to say he had plenty of time at his disposal and never grudged it to any audience willing to listen to his narratives of battle. The sands of the shore he could mould, the banks of the Alma, the valley of Balaklava, the heights of Inkerman and the trenches of Sevastopol. The parish minister and his son were frequent audience. My memory cannot recall all of the details of his stories, but I can reconstruct some of them.

John was just over seventy during the Boer war and strong and hearty; yet that war, 7,000 miles away, killed him who had survived disease and battle in the Crimea nearly fifty years before. John followed the South African campaigns with zeal and comment, until that fatal night when General Wachepe was sent to certain death with the Highland Brigade at Magersfontein. John was never the same after that and I think it killed him.

John did not bother to talk much about the causes of the Crimean war, even though he was a keen student of history. Perhaps the reason was that he liked the Turks, our allies, a lot less than the Russians, our enemies; and felt as many Britons have since felt, that we backed the wrong horse. I suppose I should mention these causes. Like most wars, the Crimean war had a real cause and a fictitious one which served as an excuse. This was the latter and it started with a quarrel between the Greek Catholic and Roman Catholic custodians of some of the sacred places in Jerusalem. Apparently this trouble was patched up between the Sultan, the upstart Napoleon III. and Nicholas, the autocrat of All the Russias, who, whatever of evil he may have had in him, was every inch a man and very much a king. It was just too bad that this trouble had been fixed up and Nicholas had to start something else. In the realms of the Sultan there were some twelve or fourteen millions of Greek Catholics, members of the Greek Catholic Church, the Russian church. Nicholas suddenly sent a demand to the Sultan that this church be given spiritual power over these fourteen millions, but spiritual power meant more, it meant temporal power, for these



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people took their orders from their patriarchs and priests, more than from their Sultan. Is it any wonder that the latter refused Nicholas' demand? So the great Czar invaded the Danubian Provinces, but without declaring war, which was done by Turkey in October, 1853.

* * * * *

NOW HERE was the real cause. Nicholas wanted Constantinople. He wanted to make the Black Sea a Russian lake. Sir George Sevmour, the British ambassador at St. Petersburg, reported in the famous secret correspondence, this conversation with Nicholas, the latter speaking: "The affairs of Turkey are in a very disorganized condition; the country itself seems to be falling to pieces, the fall will be a great misfortune and it is very important that England and Russia should come to a perfectly good understanding upon these affairs" . . . and further: "Tenez, tenez, nous avons sur les bras un homme malade, un homme gravement malade." That's the origin of the expression: "The Sick Man of Europe," and Nicholas meant that he was to be kept sick until he passed out to the further enlargement of Russian territory. That was the real cause of the war, Nicholas following the policy of Katherine the Great.

We were dragged into this useless war in March, 1854, with our traditional enemy of 40 years before as our ally, led, or rather pushed, by an imitation Napoleon, and a poor, a very poor imitation at that.

Of course the bands played and the gallant troops marched through cheering throngs as they were mobilized for the massacre. A regiment of the Guards was marched to Buckingham Palace and formed up inside the railings at 7:30 in the morning and the Queen and Prince Consort and the royal children presented themselves on the balcony. The troops saluted Her Majesty and raised three tremendous cheers. The Queen was deeply touched. Then the notes of the National Anthem arose followed by the measured march of the men as they resumed their way. The same old scenes that London had seen so often.

Like a good many who survived the Great War, John Salmond had a good many caustic remarks to make about the way our army was run. It had been a peace-time army for forty years. The gallant days of the Peninsula and Waterloo were past and it was bound from advance guard to rear guard, from C. in C. to drummer boy, from head to foot in a mass of red tape. Commissions in it were obtained by purchase. A cavalry captain was quoted at about \$15,000. The officers were nearly all members of the aristocratic or leisured classes and only a minority headed by the Prince Consort himself, were really keen on their profession.

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BUT WHEN John talked of the men it was a different story. They were taken from all types of life among the lower classes: farm lads were the best, but the cities gave their share. Generally it

was hard luck that made them 'list, but sometimes the glamour of the uniform. Their training was worse than a stretch in prison; their food and quarters were rotten; their N.C.O.'s would, many of them, never have survived one tour in our trenches. No wonder those lads took to drink. Nor was their barrack life their only misery. The civilian population looked with loathing on the "sojer". Many places of public entertainment were closed to him and most of the busses in London would not accept him as a passenger. No wonder he often deserted, only to be taken. Then the scene of the flogging before the regiment. That gives you some idea of the soldier's barrack life. Before I have finished you will realize the wonderful stuff that was in these men, for were they not the heroes of Balaklava? No wonder they embarked on their crazy transports with comparatively light hearts.

The man who had to sleep with only a sheet of metal between him and the propeller shaft of the Metagama in 1915 slept in paradise compared with the quarters of the men on the way to the Crimea. A 600 ton ship was a big one then, the men were crowded like herrings in a barrel, and they were all seasick, but they were cheerful.

They dribbled out to the Bosphorous by ship-loads and after being gathered together near Constantinople they sailed again for Varna.

Meanwhile a war has been going on between Ivan Petruski Skvah and Abdul the Bul-bul Ameer. As I told you, Russia invaded the Danubian Provinces and was pressing south; but whatever we find out about the Turk in the Crimea, we must admit he acquitted himself like a man on the banks of the Danube under Omar Pasha. Three young English volunteers acquitted themselves with much honour in this campaign, which ended in the raising of the siege of Selistria and the retreat of the Russians

* * * * *

AT THIS point I may say that the war was carried on on five different fronts. Naval warfare which brought about the capture of some Russian forts in the Baltic; the campaign on the Danube which I have just mentioned and which ended in the discomfiture of Russia there; a smaller campaign at the other end of the Black Sea; and finally the big events resulting in the fall of Sevastopol. We are concerned only with the latter.

The British and French allies proceeded to Varna, the base of operations for the Danube campaign. There they met their Turkish allies. The Turkish soldier was a thick-set, sinewy-looking fellow, with bow-legs and ill-shaped feet, with stooping shoulders and a slouching gait. He was dressed in the eternal red fez cap with its brass button. His face was generally hairy. An ill-fitting blue frock coat, single-breasted, and sometimes trimmed with red facings hung about him. A pair of white cross belts kept up his bayonet sheath and cartridge box and a pair of ragged trousers, supposed to be whitened completed his uniform. He was the worst shod soldier in the world. He wore thin slippers of miserable manufacture.

What the Turk did not know about military sanitation would have filled Kinglake's nine volumes, nor did the Allies practice sanitation even up to the limits of their knowledge. Our men, in spite of orders, persisted in throwing offal into the bushes round the camps: heads and entrails of fowls, bones and skins and the usual muck that can always accumulate. Putrescence and millions of flies did the rest, for this was July, and the cholera broke out. A man took sick at seven and was a corpse at twelve. Typhus fever was added. Sixteen to twenty British died every day while the plague was at its height and the French were even worse off. I doubt if there was ever a military expedition so poorly supplied with medical and sanitary advice, equipment and personnel. By moving camps frequently the worst of the scourge was overcome. And now we come back to the war.

* * * * *

IF THE TURKS had distinguished themselves by vigour and valour on the Danube, the British and French covered themselves with an inglorious mantle of incapacity and inaction. Not a man was sent to help the Turk and the troops literally rotted away with disease. But good news was coming from England. Sevastopol was ordered destroyed.

Sevastopol was the base of all Russian naval operations on the Black Sea. Its importance can be readily understood when I tell you that it was the Portsmouth of Russia. Its position was eminently strategic and it was very heavily protected by heavy artillery. So France and Britain decreed its destruction.

The summer was all but gone, but the allied fleets and transports sailed from Varna on 5th September. What a grand piece of staff work it must have been. They didn't know where they were to land till they got there. Fortunately movement on the water was quicker than marching on the land; so 60,000 allies were able to land 30 miles north of Sevastopol—27,000 British, 25,000 French and 8,000 Turks. And were they not lucky? Even then there was no reconnaissance, except from the masts of the ships. A divisional commander Sir George Brown, was the first Englishman to land. He started inland, practically alone, without any screen of any kind. Some Cossacks came along and nearly caught him. He had to run for his life.

However, more by good luck than good management, the landing was effected without loss, although a few died of cholera on the beach.

Each officer was in full dress. In his haversack was 4½-lbs. of salt meat, cooked, and the same weight of biscuit. This was three days' ration. He carried his greatcoat rolled and fastened around his body, a wooden water-bottle, a ration of rum or brandy, whatever change of underclothing he could stow away, his forage cap, his sword, and generally a revolver.

Each soldier carried his blanket and greatcoat strapped into a kind of knapsack, inside which were a pair of boots, socks, shirt, forage cap. He had a water-bottle, the same rations as the officers,

some part of the mess cooking appliances, a heavy rifle and bayonet, some of the old Brown Bess that was used on the Plains of Abraham, only now it was fitted with a percussion cap instead of a flint lock, some with rifles which loaded from the muzzle but had a conical hollow bullet with a plug in the rear of it. When the rifle was fired this plug expanded the bullet to fit the rifling. The bore was nearly three-quarters of an inch, and the result was about as bad as a direct hit from a whiz-bang. He carried a cartridge box and fifty rounds of ammunition.

* * * * *

AFTER the landing was made military movements began to take military shape and the different divisions and brigades found some definite formations. Horses, however, were late in landing, and it was common to see generals sitting on powder barrels on the beach, waiting the arrival of divisional staff horses. Disconsolate doctors, too, were groaning after hospital panniers.

You must now make your acquaintance with the leaders of this campaign. Marshal St. Arnaud was the French commander-in-chief; Lord Raglan the British. The latter had served through the Peninsula as military secretary to Wellington. He had been in nearly every action in that war. He had acquitted himself with signal bravery and honour and had left an arm at Waterloo. Whether by accident or intent he imitated his great chief in his habitual aloofness, so that his men never got to know him. His Divisional Commanders were: the Light Division—Brown; 1st Duke of Cambridge; 2nd, De Lacy Evans; 3rd, England; 4th, Cathcart; Cavalry, Lord Lucan. Three brigadiers we must know: Scarlett of the Heavy Cavalry; Cardigan of the Light Brigade; and Colin Campbell of the Highland Brigade. All of these were aristocrats except old Sir Colin. The older ones had seen service under Wellington. Every one of them, as far as I have been able to gather, was characterized by a lot of guts and a lack of gumption, all except Colin Campbell who had both; for he was the only one who made no mistakes in this war of military solecisms. He was a commoner, product of Glasgow High School; over 60 years old, who when the mutiny broke out a year or two later, when offered the job as commander-in-chief in India, sailed the day after and won his war. He was a god to John Salmond.

The landing which I have described took place on the 14th September and the march on Sevastopol began on the 19th. The Turks marched next the sea. Next were the French and the British farthest inland. There was little reconnaissance, and I believe that the left flank of the army was unprotected by flank guards. But this march was not to proceed unopposed. On the evening of the 19th the allied armies came in sight of the Russian army, 45,000 or 50,000, impreguably posted on the heights on the left bank of the little river Alma. From where the allies bivouacked the ground sloped upwards slightly and then gradually down to the river which was some 40 feet wide and not more than waist deep in most places. The hills on which the Russians were emplaced were 350 or 400 feet high. Towards the sea they seemed practically unscalable and were there very lightly de-

fended. Further inland they were more gradual and two and a half miles from the sea they were cut by a considerable valley on the left of which was a solitary pinnacle. It was on this Russian right flank that the defence was heaviest. A trench encircled the lower slope of the hills; guns were placed in strong positions; and there was a larger battery on the salient of the hill which commanded front and flanks.

Raglan and St. Armand determined on flank attacks. The French and Turks were to scale the heights at the shore and turn the Russian left wing. The British were to capture the pinnacle and turn the right.

The march recommenced on the morning of the 20th; but so exhausted were the British by exposure and disease that they did not come within range of the Russian guns till 2.30 in the afternoon; it took them from six in the morning to make four miles.

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THE French attack went off practically like a clockwork machine, largely owing to the amazing pluck and agility of the Zouaves who scaled the apparently impassable heights near the sea and made way for the main body of the French, who in turn turned the Russian flank. It was a type of fighting particularly fitted for the French temperament: a bold dash, a wild yell, "Vive l'Empereur", another dash, reinforcements come up, another scramble, the top is reached. The heavier troops form up, artillery arrives, the heights are won.

But what of the left? A wild charge is useless there; the defences are too strong. Nothing but a slow, steady phlegmatic, British infantry advance can overcome such defence. And it did overcome it.

The Second Division attacked on the right with the 3rd in support; the Light Division on the left with the 1st, the Guards and Highlanders supporting it. The 4th was in reserve with the cavalry on the left and rear. There was a village on the near bank of the Alma immediately in front of the Second Division. This was fired by the Russians just as the Division was forming up to attack. The resulting smoke disorganized this Division's attack so that one brigade had to pass to the right and one to the left of the village. The full force of this right attack was considerably dissipated and the brunt of the fighting fell on the Light Division and the Guards and Highlanders.

The former formed from column into line just about where the round shot stopped rolling and advanced on the Alma. The enemy's fire was terrific; round shot, shell, shrapnel, grape, case shot and musketry beat mercilessly on the advancing light infantry. But the stream was reached and forded. There was a 15-foot bank on the south side which gave some shelter for re-forming. Then the advance recommenced through a cut-down vineyard where the troops actually paused to pick some half-ripe grapes. They were now within one hundred yards of the trenches on the lowest slope of the hill. The tornado of shot and shell grew worse, the casualties mounted

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momentarily; but the Russians in the trenches did not wait. They scurried back up the hill. The Light Division plunged after them and actually penetrated the heavy battery half-way up. But here the odds were too much. Blind old Sir George Brown who couldn't see without his glasses and was too proud to wear them was right up in front rallying his men. His horse was shot under him and down he went. Brave old chap, he was on his feet again in a moment; but already his men were retreating. Doggedly back they went, down the hill, still firing, but help was at hand. The Guards and the Highlanders had crossed the Alma. The former actually halted, threw out markers and spent ten minutes in the face of this terrible fusilade forming up as if they were on the banks of the Serpentine instead of the Alma. The advance of this great division recommenced; but the line of the Scots Guards was broken up by the retreat of the Light Division.

* * * * *

OLD SIR COLIN CAMPBELL had his brigade on their left, advancing steadily in echelon. The first time I heard that word was from John Salmond. He told me how the Black Watch were on the right and in the lead. John was with the 93rd, the Sutherland Highlanders, in the centre and a little behind the Black Watch; on the left and further behind were the Camerons. John explained the use of the echelon formation. Sir Colin rode with the Black Watch and when the Scots Guards line was broken by the retreating Light Infantry he is reported to have shouted at them, "Are ye runnin' after your nurse-maids, ye lanky poltroons?" Then some Russian infantry appeared on the right flank of the Black Watch. Sir Colin ordered the 93rd to right incline and then right form and the flank was saved by the time the Guards had recovered and were again advancing. Campbell had to use the Camerons for a similar threat on the left, and the front of the Black Watch was extended. They arrived at the battery, racing the Guards, and the enemy fled. John used to expatiate on the coolness and skill of old Sir Colin who handled his brigade from its front, under a hail of death, with a horse shot under him, just as if he were on the parade ground of Edinburgh Castle. The honours of the day lay with the Light Division who pressed on till overwhelmed and the Guards and Highlanders who marched calmly on with absolute steadiness regardless of the death that was showering about them.

The rest of the battle was easy. The Russians made a brief but ineffectual stand on the top of the hills and then retired in considerable disorder. It is remarkable, however, that they took away all their guns but three.

* * * * *

THUS ended the great battle of the Alma in which the allied armies drove an impregnably placed enemy out of its position in a three hours battle, causing them 5,000 casualties and opening the road to Sevastopol. The allied losses were 3,600.

THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE ANNUAL JOURNAL

Had Raglan and St. Armand had enough cavalry the defeat would have been turned into a rout, the Russian army destroyed and Sevastopol would have fallen. As it was Raglan wanted to pursue, but St. Armand refused.

I have not time to describe the battlefield and the treatment of the wounded thereon; but here is a picture of a hospital ship on its way from the Alma to the hospital at Scutari.

She was the Colombo. Wounded men had been on board for two days before she sailed. She carried 27 wounded officers, 422 wounded soldiers and 104 Russian prisoners. There were four medical men, one the ship's surgeon whose hands were already full. The ship was literally covered with prostrate forms. The officers could not get below for their sextants and the voyage was made at hazard. The worst cases were put on the upper deck which in a day or two became a mass of putridity. The neglected wounds bred maggots which crawled in every direction, infecting the food. The putrid animal matter, for the men lay in their own excrement, caused such a stench that the officers and crew were nearly overcome. Even when they reached Scutari 46 men were left on board for two days when they might have been taken to the hospital.

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ON the 23rd, after the battlefield was cleared, the wounded shipped and the dead buried, the march to Sevastopol was resumed. And what a march! Never in the history of war was a crazier undertaking carried out so successfully. When they reached the River Bilbec they found the Russians entrenched at its mouth. Raglan and St. Armand determined on a flank march inland to arrive at Sevastopol from the rear and take the port of Balaklava. This march was through a dense forest with only one road through it and that had to be reserved for cavalry, artillery and transport. The Divisions marched by compass and became mixed up so that the army actually moved not by brigades, battalions or companies, but by individuals. True there were cavalry and horse artillery on the road in advance; but the flanks were quite unguarded. An attack by the Russians under such circumstances must have ended in disaster for the allies. But somehow they blundered through.

An amazing event happened when the point emerged from the forest. Some twenty heavy dragoons of the Scots Greys and some horse artillery ran slap into a Russian division marching east—15,000 troops. They charged and the Russians fled, leaving a tremendous amount of plunder behind them. They ran so fast that when the rest of the army arrived they were out of sight. Half ran east and half west.

Next day the army arrived in the valley of Balaklava, captured that part and the siege of Sevastopol began.

The siege was simply a blunder from beginning to end. First of all the city was never really invested properly for the main road

from it into the interior was not blocked. Then paradoxical though it may seem, the besieging army was in its turn besieged, for the Russians were entrenched, in ever increasing numbers, practically from the sea on the north to the sea on the west.

The siege works were commenced about a mile from the outer defences of the city and were gradually worked down hill, closer and closer till the fall of the city a year later when the trenches were from 30 to 200 yards from the enemy.

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MEANWHILE the Russians were not idle. On the 25th October they made a serious effort to capture the British base at Balaklava. This port was defended by Sir Colin Campbell with the 93rd Highlanders, the Turks in the redoubts a mile and a half in front and the sailors at the guns immediately round the port. John Salmond was in the front rank of the 93rd and saw it all. I must have heard him tell it ten times. The Russians appeared through the passes in the hill to the northeast, 20,000 infantry, several thousand cavalry and about 40 guns. They advanced across the farther valley and opened fire on the Turkish redoubts which were deserted by their occupants one after the other. The poor Turks came racing across the nearer valley with the Russian cavalry on their heels. John said the red line of the Sutherlands was like a magnet to them. The 93rd were drawn up in two lines (there weren't six hundred of them) on the crest of a slight hill in front of the big battery. John tells of a Highland sergeant's wife belabouring the flying Turks with a stick and helping to form them up on the flanks of the 93rd. He said her language was the admiration of the regiment, Sir Colin included. As the Russian guns began to find the range Campbell drew the 93rd back behind the crest of the hill and there they waited. Nor did they wait long for a mass of Russian cavalry, variously estimated at from 400 to 1,200 approached at a furious gallop. Sir Colin in his report modestly put them at 400; but John was sure there were at least 1,000. Campbell was on horseback immediately behind the line and moved them forward again to the crest. The Highlanders tried a volley at 600 yards but it didn't work and the Russians came on. They held their fire then till the horse were just over 100 yards away, then up went the Minnies and down went the Russians. John told how they swerved off to the left and came on again against the 93rd right flank; but as cool as a cucumber Old Colin wheeled the grenadier company to meet them and drove them off. The Turks had fled again long before this yelling "ship, ship."

From then on the 93rd were spectators and saw everything that took place in the valley. The main body of Russian cavalry meantime had continued down the valley when the others had turned off to the left to attack the Highlanders. They came within striking distance of General Scarlett and his heavy brigade. There were only 300 of them, but they hurled themselves against several times their force of Russian cavalry with amazing gallantry. The line of the latter was twice as long as that of the Heavies and three times as deep. The British trumpets gave out a blast and the Heavies were at them.

The Greys and Enniskillens were in the first line and they rode right at the Russian centre. John was about a mile away and he saw the red go through the blue and grey like a flash. The red line was pretty ragged when it broke through, but on it went, pell mell into the second line. The 93rd gave them up for lost; but even against such odds red coats would be seen bursting through the second line of blue. Then came the supports; the 1st Royals, the 4th and 5th Dragoon Guards hurled themselves through the already broken first line and scattered the second in utter rout. In less than five minutes the Russian cavalry was on the run.

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JOHN used to wax eloquent at this point about the ineptitude of the cavalry leaders. The Light Brigade was drawn up further to the left. Why didn't Lord Raglan send it after the Russian horse? They could have scattered them and their supporting infantry like chaff and have re-captured the redoubts, thus saving the fearful blunder that was made later in the morning.

Of course, there is a rule that cavalry should never be used unsupported by infantry; perhaps that was his excuse.

So there was a lull in the proceedings for a while. Raglan and all the hangers-on at headquarters had been watching these battles from the top of the hill. By 10 o'clock the 1st Division was on its way down with orders to report to Sir Colin Campbell. The 4th Di-

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vision followed. A couple of hundred French cavalry were now over on our left.

Seeing that Lucan wasn't doing anything more and that the Russians were beginning to take away the captured guns from the redoubts Raglan determined to stop the move. The main Russian force had withdrawn to the head of the valley where it was massed, cavalry and infantry behind its 30 guns, with others on the flanks and still more along the ridge on which were the Turkish redoubts. Apparently signalling was unknown in the British army for all orders were sent by mounted aides-de-camp. Yet at this stage of affairs Raglan was only about a mile away from the cavalry division. Visual signalling would have been quite feasible. It never seems to have been used.

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NOW here are the facts regarding the "some one who blundered." Raglan sent Captain Nolan, with a message which had been written out by his chief of staff to Lord Lucan. The message read, "Lord Raglan wishes the cavalry to advance rapidly to the front, follow the enemy, and try to prevent the enemy carrying away the guns. Troops of horse artillery may accompany. The French cavalry is on your left."

What an order to give, "Artillery may accompany." The word "may" should never be used in a military order. And what guns? We know now that he meant the guns in the redoubts, the captured British guns, which Lucan might have saved an hour before. But he might possibly have meant the guns drawn up at the end of the valley. When Nolan handed the message to Lucan, the latter was clearly in doubt and asked Nolan to be explicit. Apparently Nolan, who was one of the keenest young cavalry officers in the army, was already exasperated by Lucan's inactivity, for he answered, "There, my lord, is your enemy, there your guns," at the same time waving his arm in the general direction of the enemy.

Lucan didn't like it, but he rode over to the aristocratic dandy, Lord Cardigan, who sat his splendid charger at the head of his Light Brigade. He wasn't suffering much from the war for he had his yacht down at Balaklava and he slept on board each night. He too objected to attack the guns at the head of the valley; but the order had to be obeyed.

At eleven o'clock he ordered, "The Brigade will advance." The trumpets sounded and the 650 light cavalymen were off. Walk march. Trot. They advanced with the 17th Lancers and 13th Hussars in the front line, the 11th Hussars in close support and the 4th Light Dragoons and 8th Hussars following in a third line. As they reached the "mouth of Hell" round which the Russian guns and musketry were massed, the trot became a gallop. The first shell killed Nolan.

The fire was terrific but on they went, right up to the battery which kept on firing till they were not 10 yards away, through the

battery, through the Russian cavalry and up to the infantry massed behind. Cardigan was there first. Then back, only to find more Russian cavalry charging them from the flank. Fortunately a squadron of the 8th remained fairly intact and they unhesitatingly charged this new menace. Then occurred one of the most dastardly deeds ever done in war. As the 8th and the Russian cavalry were mixed up in an indistinguishable melee, the Russian artillery opened fiercely on both friend and foe. Even then the British struggled through and struggled back to safety. It is only fair to our allies to say that in the last phase of this spectacular event the French cavalry, some 200 of them, made a magnificent charge into a Russian battery, and helped in the withdrawal of the Light Brigade.

Thus ended the most useless, most spectacular event in the history of the British army and thus ended the famous Balaklava Day, October 25, 1854, with the honours of the day in the hands of a handful of Highlanders and 1,000 British cavalry and the strategical advantages slightly in favour of the Russians; for although Balaklava was now fully protected by the 1st and 4th Divisions we had lost the farthest redoubts and the Russians still held the heights threatening the rear of our army of investment.

Next day some 8,000 Russians made a sortie from Sevastopol but were driven back in a few minutes by Evans' 2nd Division.

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THE siege continued monotonously for a week or two, the besieging army itself besieged by an ever-increasing Russian force in the city and on the north bank of the Tchernaya River. Then on 4th November there were great doings on the Russian lines. A great religious revival was held and the troops were first spiritually intoxicated and then filled up with spirits of another kind to stimulate their courage for the terrible battle of Inkerman.

The night of the 4th was miserable in the extreme. There had been rain for 24 hours and towards morning a heavy fog settled on the heights and valley of Inkerman. Our pickets and outposts were drenched and chilled and their weapons useless. At five o'clock in dark and fog some 40,000 or 50,000 enemy advanced from Sevastopol and the north against the Heights of Inkerman. The fog and their long grey coats made them almost invisible and they broke through the outpost line which fought to the death.

It is nigh impossible to give a definite picture of the battle. Three and a half British divisions were engaged. 'The Light Division on the left, then the second, the Brigade of Guards and the 4th on the right. But before it was over they were higgledy-piggledy. Here are a few quotations from Russell, The Times famous correspondent:—

"Here the bayonet was often the only weapon employed in conflicts of the most obstinate character." "We were obliged to resist, bayonet to bayonet, the Russian infantry again and again, as they charged us with incredible fury and determination." "The Battle of Inkerman admits of no description. It was a series of dreadful deeds

of daring, of sanguinary hand-to-hand fights, of despairing rallies, of desperate assaults—in glens and valleys, in brushwood glades and remote dells, hidden from all human eyes, and from which the conquerors, Russian and British, issued only to engage fresh foes, till our old supremacy, so rudely assailed, was triumphantly asserted, and the battalions of the Czar gave way before our steady courage and the chivalrous fire of France.”

“Our generals could not see where to go. They could not tell where the enemy were, from what side they were coming, nor where they were coming to. In darkness, gloom and rain they had to lead our lines through thick scrubby bushes and thorny brakes, which broke our ranks and irritated the men, while every place was marked by a corpse or man wounded by an enemy whose position was only indicated by the rattle of musketry and the rush of ball and shell.”

“For three long hours 8,500 British Infantry contended against at least three times their number. No wonder they were compelled to retire. But they came to the charge again.” No wonder the famous Sandbag Battery was captured and the Guards nearly lost their colours.

About ten o'clock the French came to the rescue: first the Zouaves, then the line, then the Arab infantry from Algiers. It took time, but by noon the Russians were definitely on the retreat and by three o'clock the battle was over and the guns were recaptured. The Russians lost probably 10,000 men, the French 1,700 and we 2,600.

This was the soldiers' battle, for there never was a case where the dogged courage of the individual infantryman played such a part in war. The honours of Inkerman lie, then, with the common soldier of Britain, and the French who arrived in the nick of time to save the day.

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I DO NOT propose to tell of the awful winter before Sevastopol. The sufferings of our soldiers and sailors in that winter siege were enough to condemn the directors of our army from those in office at the Horseguards down through the commander-in-chief to the brigade commanders. The awful mortality among the cavalry horses brought blame and shame to Lucan and Cardigan; and the gallant old Lord Raglan cannot escape censure for neglect.

The Allies were joined by Sardinia for political purposes and the next event of importance was another attempt by the Russians to drive them into the sea from the rear. This was called the Battle of Tchernaya. It was fought on the 16th of June and the French and Sardinians drove the enemy back with great slaughter.

During the past year the allied lines had gradually crept up till they were right up to the defences of the city. The French were now on our right and left. They had the famous Malakoff fort in front of them and we the Redan. Reinforcements had been received, especially French, and after many bombardments and many failures the final assault was planned for the 8th of September.

The French lines had been taken to within thirty yards of the Russian defences and their attack, carefully planned in every detail, was carried out with magnificent courage, so that the Tri-colour floated on the top of the Malakoff.

Our attack on the Redan was a dismal failure, an execrable piece of staff work, communication trenches jammed with wounded and the supports too far in the rear. Our gallant infantry actually penetrated the Redan although they had 200 yards of ground to cover; but they couldn't hold it.

Sir Colin Campbell was given the job of taking it next day and laid his plans, but when morning broke the Russians were found to have evacuated the beleaguered city and the final curtain was rung down on one of the most useless, badly managed and disastrous wars in which the Empire was ever engaged, a war in which our laurels were saved by the British soldier of humble rank and practically by him alone. At the Alma he showed his dour, steady courage, advancing slowly and in good order through a withering fire, uphill and against odds; at Balaklava he displayed such coolness in the face of a cavalry charge that the "Thin Red Line" has become the standard example of the utmost that can be expected of infantry in the face of such a charge, and in the same battle the mounted men showed a brilliancy of dash and courage, never excelled in the annals of war; lastly Inkerman, attacked from this side, attacked from that, overwhelmed by foes and undirected by his officers he returned time after time to the attack, labelling that fight "The Soldier's Battle".

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The North-West Frontier Problem

By Major J. K. Lawson, G.S.O., M.D. No. 13

IT IS almost a platitude to say that India is a sub-continent, not a country, yet the truth of this is so often forgotten that I hope you will excuse me for spending a few minutes emphasizing it before dealing with the actual problem which forms the subject of this address. It is not only by sketching in the general outline of the picture that one can see any particular part in its true perspective.

India is about the size of Europe without Russia and has a population of approximately 350 millions. If these were at all homogeneous, however, India might still be considered a single country. Actually there are such variations, one might almost say extremes, not only of physiography and race, but also of religion, language and degrees of civilization, that to regard it as one unit must inevitably lead to wrong conclusions.

The races vary from the fair-haired, blue-eyed Chitrali and Swati of the north, the descendants of one of the Greek colonies planted by Alexander to protect his line of communications, to the almost black Dravidian who inhabits the forests of the south where he was driven by the successive invasions which have crossed the North West Frontier.

Between these both in colour and location, but superior to them in intellect, are the copper-coloured races of Aryan extraction. In the east are the mongoloid races which also inhabit the southern slopes of the Himalayas in the north, and in the North West, the Pathan and kindred tribes.

Again, there are numerous religions, the main ones being the Hindu and the Mussulman. The former contains a number of sects and the latter is divided into Sunnis and Shias. Hindus in India outnumber Mohammedans by about three to one (68% and 21% of the population respectively).

One must remember that religion in the East is not a thing which is paraded on one day per week and hidden for the other six. It is a definite code which governs every act of its followers. Differences of religion therefore lead to bitter enmity and religious tolerance is unknown.

The Mussulman and Hindu religions are diametrically opposed. The former is monotheistic and militant. It recognizes the prophets of the Old Testament but considers Mohamed to have been the true prophet of later times. As becomes a religion of desert origin it is individualistic, hates display and noise, while its monotheism is so pronounced that it regards the Christian Trinity as a form of polytheism.

The modern Hindu religion, on the other hand, is a collective religion which loves processions and music, while its habit of absorbing other religions and accepting their gods as incarnations, or avatars, of its own, together with its custom of providing its gods with goddess wives and families, as becomes a religion which worships the powers of reproduction, has provided it with innumerable divinities. It is polytheistic to the nth degree.

There are, of course, other religions, but these are the most important in so far as India is concerned. As you will realize, they make a very explosive mixture.

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THERE are some 222 languages and dialects spoken in India. While Hindustani is the nearest approach to a lingua franca and has become the language of Indian literature it is not universally understood—which is hardly to be wondered at in view of the fact that over 90% of the population is illiterate. The language used in the Legislative Assembly is English: it is the only language known to all members.

Physiographically one finds variations from the huge mountain systems of the north, standing many thousands of feet above the perpetual snow line, to the sub-tropical forests of the south and the deserts of the west where what water exists is so impregnated with alkali as to make it unfit to drink.

There are equally great contrasts as regards standards of living. On the one hand we have a standard in the large cities which, to outward appearance at least, approximates to our own. Calcutta and Bombay rank amongst the great ports of the world and are well built, prosperous cities. They are even modern enough in the Western sense to have their own sensational cases of kidnapping, for not many years ago, the servants of the Maharaja of Indore attempted to kidnap a dancing girl, an act which cost the Maharaja his throne.

By far the larger part of the population, however, lives at a very low standard. The houses, or rather hovels, are small, dark buildings, constructed of mud. The door forms the only means of ventilation and for light to enter—windows are, of course, dangerous where everyone carries a rifle and has no compunction about using it, moreover glass is very expensive, having for the most part to be imported. The door also forms the only means by which smoke can escape.

Each group of houses is occupied by the members of one family, and is surrounded by a high mud wall for protection.

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SO MUCH for India as a whole. Let us now turn to the frontier. The North Western frontier of India lies in the hilly country to the West of the Indus, and extends some 1,400 miles from the Persian Gulf to the junction of the Himalaya and Hindu Kush ranges.

The general elevation rises from south to north and from east to west. Between the Indus and the hills lies the plain of the Derajat and through the hills run the passes by means of which trade is carried on between India and central Asia. Beyond the frontier lies the buffer state of Afghanistan to the north and Iran to the south.

At the southern end the administrative boundary of India matches with that of Afghanistan. From Baluchistan northwards, however, there are two boundaries, the administrative border, each of which the Indian Government rules, and the Durand line—named after Sir Mortimer Durand, the Indian official who headed the delegation to Kabul which brought about the agreement with the Amir, Abdur Rahman, in 1893, by which the eastern limits of Afghanistan were laid down.

Between these two boundaries live the Independent Tribes.

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THE monsoon, on which India depends for the watering of her crops, and which produces the lush vegetation of the south and east, on which feed the herds of cattle which Miss Mayo regards as one of the main causes of India's general poverty, does not cross the Indus. Except in the northern extremity where the valleys are watered by streams which have their origin in the snow-covered mountains, therefore, cultivation is difficult and is confined to the alluvial flats along the beds of the streams or to those places on the hillsides where pockets of earth have been collected by much labour—it has often to be carried considerable distances—and where it is held by retaining walls.

Water has to be led by channels (karezes) often passing underground for long stretches, from the nearest river or spring. The tribesman is very clever at this form of engineering, and disputes regarding water rights are a fruitful source of quarrels which eventually lead to blood feuds.

Where water is not provided by artificial means, the frontier is, as a rule, an arid waste on which the only growth is camelthorn, tamarisk, dwarf palm and juniper. At higher elevations and in the north there are forests of chenar, etc., but for the most part the frontier is unproductive except at the expense of great labour.

Agriculture is carried on in some of the less poor areas by primitive means. The plough is merely a sharpened pole, drawn through the ground by oxen. But more generally cultivation is done by means of the hand hoe and is carried out by the women.

Wealth, such as it is on the Frontier, is counted in flocks of sheep and goats, which somehow manage to exist on the scant vegetation. Transportation is by means of the donkey and camel, while here and there the less poor ride a species of small hardy pony, locally known as tatts. Communication where the Indian Government has not built roads is along nala beds and is a risky business owing to the liability of the nalas to spates.

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THE population varies considerably in extraction. I have already referred to the descendants of Alexander's Greeks who live in the North. South of these are, in order, the Pathan tribes, the Mahsud-Wazir combination, and in the south the Baluch and Brahui.

The tribes are divided into clans and are as a rule bitter enemies. Despite their great variations, however, they have certain characteristics in common. They are hardy, brave, set small value on human life, other than their own, and not always excepting that; they can travel great distances rapidly over the hills, are used to living on short rations, are excellent tacticians and good shots (Selby). They are treacherous according to our standards, though many who have lived amongst them contradict this (Dodds).

They are extremely independent, consider themselves superior to anyone else, ignorant (definition of the British), arrogant (Mahsud message in 1919), but above all they are extremely poor and are fanatical Mohammedans.

Can one be surprised, in these circumstances, that, seeing the wealthy caravans from central Asia winding their way through the passes, they are tempted to attack them, or that, seeing the comparative luxury of the bazaar in an Indus valley town, they are tempted to do exactly what the Scot did not so very long ago under similar conditions—raid the lowlands. Moreover a rifle is an essential to one who must hold his own against the world and who probably has several blood feuds on his hands, and rifles in the towns are perhaps less well guarded. 1919-1920—Raids, 611; B.S. killed, 289; wounded, 392; kidnapped, 463.

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I HAVE tried to paint the picture of the Frontier to indicate that the problem is essentially an economic one, the roots of which are embedded in extreme poverty. It is, therefore, a political problem in the first place, though of course, it has its military aspect. It is, however, the political side which I wish to deal with. There is not time to discuss the purely military aspect, i.e., that form of warfare known as Hill fighting.

The problem of the N.W. frontier differs in different areas, and for its examination we may conveniently divide the 1,400 miles already mentioned into three parts of approximately, though not exactly equal, extent, the centre section being slightly the larger.

In the southern sector, on the Indian side lies the administered area of Baluchistan, rented by the Indian Government from the Khan of Kalaat. Through this sector runs one of the great trade routes into Afghanistan, that which traverses the Bolan and Khojak passes.

A broad gauge railway runs from the Indus valley over the Bolan and through the Khojak Tunnel to the frontier station of Chaman. This railway is protected at strategic points by railway police who occupy small lookout towers for the purpose.

Between the two passes is the garrison cantonment of Quetta from which detachments are pushed forward to Chaman and up the Zhob valley which forms the route from the centre sector.

The boundary between Baluchistan and Afghanistan is well defined and is marked by pillars. On the further side lies the Afghan province of Registan.

Baluchistan is no exception to the general sterile character of the N.W.F. The Baluchis themselves are responsible for the saying that: "When God had finished making the earth he piled all the rubbish in a heap and called it Baluchistan." Also, "Oh God, when thou had made Sibi, why was it necessary to make Hell also?"

Since the time when Major (afterwards Sir Robert) Sundeman crossed the frontier into Baluchistan, in defiance of orders from the Indian Government, this sector has given little trouble. Not that one can afford to travel unarmed or neglect precautions, and raids do still occur, but these can generally be traced to "badmashes" from across the Afghan border.

Sundeman found a well organized system of government by local councils or jirgas which he was wise enough to support rather than trying to introduce some new form of government. However, what is more remarkable, he found that these jirgas actually possessed power, and that a treaty made with the Baluch headman was kept. The Brahuīs were not quite so tractable, yet on the whole, after the first few years they did not behave too badly. The history of those first few years, however, disposes of the theory that Baluchistan is quiet because the tribesmen there lack fighting qualities. The conditions in Baluchistan are primarily due to the far-sighted policy of Sundeman which resulted in British administration being carried right up to the Afghan frontier, leaving no independent tribes, and to his support of the local system of government.

The cost of administration of Baluchistan as compared with that for the N.W.F. Province is illuminating. In 1916-17 it was £13,000 as compared with £2,830,000 for the N.W.F.P.

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TO jump now to the Northern Sector. Here, as you will remember, the administrative boundary and the Durand line are separate. From the north, down to the Bunerwal country which lies north of Peshawar the country between the two frontiers is occupied by the semi-independent states of Chitral, Swat and Dir. These states are ruled over by despotic chieftains who are powerful enough to keep their subjects more or less in order. They are a fascinating collection of brigands who, however much they may fight amongst themselves, do not give much trouble to the Indian Government. There is a small Indian garrison in Chitral, but this is for the purpose of watching the Northern passes rather than for internal security. In this sector also lies the Gilgit agency which, according to the Times of the 4th April, 1935, is now also to administer small states of Hunza and Nagar, heretofore under the suzerainty of Kashmir.

South of this collection of states and running south to the Baluch border lies the centre sector, and in this sector the frontier problem reaches its most difficult aspect. The area between the administrative boundary and the Durand line is here occupied by true bolsheviks and the most warlike of the tribes. They have, of course, their village headman and their jirgas or councils of elders, but these have little power and it is always a gamble as to whether any agreement reached with them will be put into effect. This part of the frontier does not enjoy the comparatively plentiful water supply which the valleys of the northern sector obtain from the melting snows of the Himalayas, nor yet the comparative quiet of the southern sector where crops can be reaped in safety. It is the poorest and therefore the most unruly part.

The approximate strengths of the tribes in this sector from north to south are:—

Northern group—North of Peshawar:—

Bunerwals	)	Fighting men	273,000
Bajauris	)	Rifles 1 to 3.3	
Utman Khel	)	82,600	

Centre group—Northwest of Peshawar:—

Mohmands	)	Fighting men	86,000
Afridi	)	Rifles 1 to 2.6	
Orakzai	)	32,200	

Southern group.—

Wazirs	)	Fighting men	64,500
Mahsuds	)	Rifles 1 to 2.4	
	)	26,500	

423,500

Through this sector runs the Kyber pass, the gateway through which successive invasions—Persians, Greeks, Seljuks, Tartars, Mongols, Pathans, Duranis and Afghans (Darius, Alexander, Mahmud of Ghazni, Taimur Lung, Babar and Ahmed Shah) have marched into India.

Today, though the immediate threat of invasion is absent, the threat of tribal raids of varying magnitude remains. The number of such raids runs into three figures even in a peaceful year, while periodically the behaviour of the tribes calls for major operations.

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FROM the time when, having defeated the Sikhs at Gujrat in 1848 and having taken over the Punjab the following year the Indian government inherited the frontier problem, there having been two main schools of thought as to the solution, known respectively as the "Close Border" and the "Forward" schools.

The advocates of the "Close Border" policy favour complete withdrawal from tribal territory and the extremists would even

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come back to the line of the Indus river. Their arguments are largely financial. They claim that little return is received from the enormous outlay to the total of which every new advance adds. Politically they point out that by having the independent territory between India and Afghanistan minimises the likelihood of conflict with a state which is always suspicious of India's intentions. They state that Indus is the logical frontier of India and that by withdrawing we should force any invader to leave his line of communication open to attack by the tribes.

The supporters of the Forward Policy on the other hand point out that so far from stopping raids, withdrawal would, by bringing the tribesmen closer to the towns of the Indus valley, increase them. Further, that many tribal areas have been taken within the administrative border as a result of the requests of the tribes themselves, and that to withdraw from these would leave those tribes at the mercy of the others. Again they point out that it is easier to meet an enemy in the passes, where room for manoeuvre is restricted than to meet him along the whole length of the Indus after we have presented him with the Derajat as a deployment area.

As regards the financial argument, it has been suggested that much mineral wealth exists in the hills and that occupation of the tribal area would enable this to be worked.

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OF LATE some of the supporters of this policy have been at pains to point to the success of the French in Morocco where consolidation and administration have followed each military advance with beneficial effect. One must remember, however, that when the French have finally conquered the tribes they will be faced with nothing more formidable than the Sahara Desert, while an advance through tribal territory on the N.W.F. would bring us up against a suspicious Afghanistan, rendered even more suspicious by that advance, and perhaps driven by fear of our intentions into the arms of a waiting Russia.

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UP TO the time when Lord Curzon became Viceroy these policies had been favoured, first one, then the other, by the Government of India. Lord Curzon, as one would expect, produced a policy of his own. This was to withdraw the troops within the administrative boundary, and to raise tribal militias to preserve order within the independent territory. These militias were assisted by Khassadars, that is, men provided from the villages near the trade routes, to police those routes on certain days and between certain hours. Along the administrative border the Frontier Police had their posts. The role of the militias, who occupied small forts at

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important points and who were officered by Indian Army officers loaned for the purpose, was to move out and disperse any tribesmen who assembled for a raid, or, failing this, to cut off the raiding party and prevent it returning with the loot. This in itself would be a great detriment since the tribesman will rarely risk his skin unless he considers he can return safely to enjoy the proceeds of his raid.

This policy worked well until 1919. Its weakness lay in the fact that the militias were recruited from the areas in which they served. They could, therefore, act only so long as the majority of the local tribes tolerated them. Once whole areas rose the militiaman was faced with the fact that if he remained in the militia and fought against the tribes, he could never expect to return home, he would have endless blood feuds on his hands and his family would pay the price. It is, therefore, no wonder that in the general rising of 1919 the militia broke—and took its rifles and ammunition with it.

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AFTER peace had been restored in 1920, the policy which exists today, and which has been called the "Half Way Policy", was inaugurated. This policy profited by the lessons of the two preceding years. Along the Khyber route troops were pushed forward to the Afghan frontier and a double road was built through the pass, followed later by a railway. Troops were stationed at points along this road, and a force of approximately one brigade was stationed at Landi Kotal, from where it could move out to deal with any refractory tribes. This brigade had an outpost at Landi Khuna, within two miles of the Afghan boundary, with a piquet actually looking into Afghan territory. This ensured the safety of the great trade route.

In other areas the militia were replaced by scouts with a somewhat similar organization, but with this great difference—they were raised from parts of the frontier other than that on which they were to serve. The South Waziristan Scouts, for instance, were, and still are, recruited from amongst the Afridis and Mohmands and since an Afridi would as soon cut a Mahsud throat as a white one, the system has worked well.

Khassadars were again employed. They provide their own arms and ammunition and patrol the roads between specified times. In short the local village is paid not to raid traders between specific hours—a form of plain blackmail.

It was realized, however, that irregulars such as the Scouts could not be expected to deal with serious trouble without immediate support from regular troops. A cantonment was therefore built and garrisoned at Razmak, a point within the most troublesome part of the independent territory—Waziristan—and roads were built to enable a mobile column from this garrison to move rapidly to a disaffected area where conditions became such as to be beyond the power of the Scouts to suppress.

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Medium artillery was stationed at Razmak within range of the political centre Kaniguram and of the religious centre Makin.

The most unruly tribes, the Mahsuds and Wazirs, therefore found themselves with a strong regular force ready to move in at their back door should they attempt to go out of the front.

An additional advantage was that Razmak, being situated in the hills is very much healthier for troops than the low Derajat.

Occupation of Razmak was followed by the occupation of Wana, an old militia post.

It is doubtful, however, whether these military measures would, by themselves have been sufficient. As I have pointed out the problem is in the first place an economic one. The construction of roads by hired local labour, the hiring of Khassadars and the money brought into the country through the pockets of the Razmak garrison and the Scouts, however, has assisted, for the time being, in restoring a certain amount of quiet to this part of the frontier.

In 1930, however, there was renewed trouble further north, where no road construction was in progress and where the money paid for work on the Khyber railway had, no doubt, been spent. On this occasion the tribesmen actually penetrated into Peshawar. After dealing with him a program of road construction was undertaken and things have become quieter, though there is still a certain amount of unrest. In 1933 a force had to be sent into this Mohmand country, and it is in keeping with the contradictions of the frontier that the road construction which brings money to the tribes is sometimes used by the agitators to stir up trouble. The Daily Telegraph of March 28th, 1935, for instance, contains an account of disturbances in the Khyber area for which the construction of a road running from Ali Masjid was made the excuse.

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TO SUM up, we now have strong regular garrisons stationed within tribal territory at Landi Kotal, Razmak and Wana. The two main routes into Afghanistan are controlled entirely by regulars, and a system of roads being constructed within tribal territory by means of which speedy punishment can be brought to the offender rather than the slow legged justice from the Derajat which must fight its way into the hills.

These are assisted by regulars, capable and willing to round up small raiding parties, while the Frontier Police still have their stations along the administrative border.

In addition and equally important, the tribesmen are receiving money for labour on a renewed programme of road construction and for Khassadar service.

The present policy appears to be justified by the following figures:—

Cost of road construction in Waziristan, one of the most difficult parts of the frontier is £10,000 per mile.

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Cost of the 1919-1920 Wazir force, not including the operations against Afghanistan, was £15,130,000 or approximately £10,000 per day.

That is the situation at the moment, but one cannot help wondering what will happen when road construction again slackens off. The history of the Frontier suggests the answer—more trouble. Indeed, it seems doubtful whether a permanent settlement will ever be reached short of coming to an agreement with Afghanistan and advancing the administrative border to the Duranti line.

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THE ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE

The Defence of India

By Captain W. H. S. Macklin, B.Sc., R.C.C.S.

THE annual budget of the government of India is in the neighborhood of \$360,000,000. Of this sum approximately two-fifths is devoted to National Defence. This is a very large sum of money, and like most other expenditures on defence in the British Empire it has been stated by many to be excessive and unnecessary. Some of those who oppose it do so merely on the ground that it represents too high a proportion of the total budget. Others maintain that the expenditure, if devoted to other purposes, would greatly hasten the economic development of India. On the other hand, some in upholding the expenditure, devote much space to multitudes of figures by which they attempt to prove that the expenditure is really much less than it is said to be. All of these arguments err in concentrating on figures instead of on facts.

Assuming that the policy of any government is not an aggressive one, and that the government is concerned only with the protection of the vital national interests when they clash with other interests, either foreign or internal, then the size and composition of the defence forces ought to be governed by the nature and magnitude of the threats which may be directed against those interests. It is clearly the duty of a government to ensure that that security is obtained at the lowest possible cost to the taxpayer, but security should be considered before absolute cost. It is here proposed to discuss the problem of the defence of India, and the means provided to deal with it.

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INDIA has several thousand miles of coast line and the annual value of her sea borne trade is about four hundred million pounds. Interruption of this vast trade for any considerable period would spell disaster to the country. A study of the effect of the operations of a single small German cruiser—the Emden—in the Indian Ocean in 1914 will make this point clear.

On the sea India maintains the Royal Indian Navy which consists of a few small patrol vessels only sufficient for the ordinary police and survey work along her coasts in peace time. She has not contributed towards the cost of the Singapore naval base, though this base certainly adds to her security. She is therefore entirely dependent on the British Navy for defence by sea. Her annual contribution towards the cost of the British Navy is about half a million dollars and her total expenditure annually on naval defence amounts in all to about three and a half million dollars, or some two and a half percent of the total defence budget. In view of the importance of her sea trade this cannot be considered an excessive sum.

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THE Army in India consists of the Indian Army and certain British units. It is organized into three distinct categories whose size, composition and functions must be considered separately if a reasoned decision is to be arrived at as to whether or not they are adequate, or more than adequate, to perform their respective tasks in peace or in war. The three categories are:—

- (i) Internal security troops.
- (ii) Covering troops.
- (iii) Field army.

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THE need for the use of military force to assist the civil power in maintaining internal order is probably greater in India than in any country possessing a stable government anywhere in the world. This need arises from various causes, chief among which are:—

- (i) The vast size of the population combined with the extreme ignorance of the bulk of it
- (ii) The great diversities of race, language, custom and wealth which exist.
- (iii) The irreconcilable differences in religious custom and belief, especially between the two predominant religions, Hindu and Mohammedan.
- (iv) The number and variety of seditious movements led by agitators whose aim is, for one reason or another, the embarrassment and ultimate overthrow of the government.

The majority of civil disturbances in India are caused by religious differences but, at the instigation of skilful agitators, a riot which starts from a purely communal cause may, if not quickly checked, develop into a major disturbance directed against the government. Riots develop very rapidly from the most insignificant beginnings. In their report on India the Simon Commission stated that "India is a country in which the wildest and most improbable stories of outrage or insult spread with amazing rapidity and are widely believed." Thus the troubles with which the troops may be, and frequently are, called upon to deal vary from impromptu communal riots confined to a small locality to organized and well directed seditious movements affecting whole provinces and millions of people, and requiring the use of thousands of troops to suppress them. The Congress "Civil Disobedience" campaign, the Red Shirt movement, the Moplah rebellion of 1921, the rebellion in Burma in 1931 and the still troublesome Terrorist campaign, most active in Bengal, are instances of internal disturbances on a large scale since the Great War.

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THE internal security forces which are maintained to deal with this situation consist chiefly of twenty-eight battalions of British infantry and twenty-five battalions of Indian infantry. There is also a small proportion of cavalry and artillery on internal security

duties. The total number of internal security forces is therefore about sixty thousand. The population of British India amongst which this force must maintain order amounts to two hundred and eighty million with a further seventy million in the native states. The proportion of soldiers to population therefore is approximately one to six thousand. In fact the internal security forces of India are less than twice the size of the Metropolitan Police Force of London which deals with about one-thirtieth of the population.

In considering the number of troops employed on internal security duties it is also necessary to consider the size of India which is equivalent to Continental Europe less Russia. The nature of internal security duties implies dispersion since, because of the rapidity of the growth of communal disturbances, there must always be some force close at hand to deal with outbreaks in the early stages. The internal security troops are therefore scattered across the country in garrisons which vary from a brigade to detachments of two platoons. It might be argued that there are few cases on record where a small force properly handled has not been able to cope effectively with a mob, and that therefore large garrisons might be reduced in size. The army, however, must remain an army. It is not a police force. It is a force to be called in when police action has failed or is likely to fail. To scatter it in tiny garrisons like police stations in every town would be fatal to its efficiency as a military force and moreover this dispersion would be a source of great weakness. For example in the famous Amritsar riot in 1919 the military commander on the spot had available only about fifty men with rifles and there were no reserves to call on. He was faced with a mob of some twenty thousand who had been in a state of lawless disorder for several days. Had there been even one or two battalions readily available it is unlikely that the disturbance would ever have reached the proportions it actually did reach. Even had it done so it is still more unlikely that the military commander with ample force behind him would have considered it necessary to take such drastic action as was taken, involving the loss of several hundred lives.

The fact that the available military force was so insignificant was an incitement to the rioters to continue their lawlessness, and a source of such anxiety to the military commander that he felt that failure to break up the mob at the first attempt would result in the overwhelming of his force. Such will always be the result of weakness and hence the necessity for maintaining internal security garrisons at adequate strength.

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IN PEACE time the internal security troops are strengthened by units of the field army whose stations are such as to permit their occasional employment on such tasks. This assistance from the field army is justifiable only so long as it is of a temporary nature and confined to those districts in which the field army is normally stationed. In 1933, however, it was found necessary to move two complete brigades of the field army to Bengal to assist in suppress-

ing the Terrorist movement which was assuming alarming proportions. These brigades have now been in Bengal for two years and there seems small prospect that they will be withdrawn in the near future. At present, therefore, in event of the field army having to mobilize, the government is faced with a serious deficiency in the striking power of that army or the probable alternative of a revival of terrorism in Bengal if the two brigades are withdrawn to their proper place in the field army.

It must also be remembered that the forces of such seditious movements as terrorism and communism are likely to be most active when, in war, the field army is mobilized and absent from its peace stations. If the field army is fighting on, or beyond, the frontier its communications are long and vulnerable. It will be the task of the internal security troops to protect these communications from acts of sabotage. As, in recent years, they have required active assistance from the field army for the performance of their normal peace duties there seems already some risk that this additional task in war will find them inadequate.

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IT REMAINS to consider the composition of the forces devoted to internal security. It will be noted that British troops predominate in the proportion of about seven to six, whereas in the Army in India as a whole they are in a minority of about two to five. A British unit costs considerably more than the corresponding Indian unit and the argument has been advanced that the percentage of British troops on these duties could be reduced and the percentage of Indian troops correspondingly raised. The fact is that in India it is frequently inadvisable if not actually dangerous to use Indian troops to restore order in communal riots, not so much because of the religious prejudices of the troops themselves as because of the invariable conviction of the people that such prejudices exist. In such cases the intervention which is most likely to be authoritative is that which has no bias, real or suspected, to either side.

The conclusion is that any reduction or major changes in the composition of the internal security forces would involve considerable risk of serious communal outbreaks. Under the influence of agitators these might develop into insurrections on a large scale, the suppression of which, apart from the inevitable loss of life involved, would cost sums far exceeding the economies the changes were intended to effect.

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THE ROLE of the covering troops in peace is the protection of India from raids by the tribes of the North West Frontier, the gradual occupation of tribal territory and the ultimate pacification of the tribes. In war these troops have the additional important task of guarding the lines of communication of the field army if it is operating on or beyond the frontier. The present strength of the covering troops which perform these duties is four regiments of cavalry and forty-four battalions of infantry with a proportion of artillery and other arms.

The problem of dealing with the tribes of the North West Frontier has been one of the most formidable of those facing the government of India for almost a century. During the whole of this period the number of military expeditions sent against the tribes has averaged about one per year, some of these expeditions having involved the employment of two or more divisions. There is no reason to suppose that other expeditions will not be necessary in the future.

It was formerly the policy to keep the military forces outside tribal territory and to enter it only when necessary to punish a tribe or tribes. Many years of trial proved the futility of this so-called "burn and scuttle" policy as a solution to the problem. The nature of the territory is such that no one expedition could affect more than a limited part of it, and the economic condition of the tribes combined with their racial characteristics are such that the effects of punishment were always very temporary

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THE ALTERNATIVE policy was to occupy the territory permanently and by force, combined with the economic improvement of the condition of the tribes, to attempt their gradual pacification and ultimate disarmament. This policy had been successfully adopted by Sir Robert Sandeman in Baluchistan. Following the widespread tribal risings of 1919-20, and the resulting costly Waziristan campaign it was extended to Waziristan. There can be little doubt that ultimately this policy will have to be extended to the remaining frontier districts, as otherwise the frontier problem promises to be an endless expense.

The occupation of Waziristan absorbs some fourteen thousand of the covering troops including nine infantry battalions. That this number is not excessive was shown by the difficulty the garrisons had in preventing tribal incursions into the Khost salient of Afghanistan in 1933. Those troops have been in Waziristan for about twelve years and must remain there for a considerable number of years to come before this territory will be sufficiently pacified and disarmed to permit their withdrawal. Weakening at this stage involves the risk of undoing all the progress accomplished up to date and so nullifying the enormous expenditure which has already been made

The guarding of the Khyber and Kurram passes absorbs a further seven battalions of covering troops and there is one battalion permanently stationed in Chitral. In 1930 the Afridis raided into the Khajuri plain adjacent to Peshawar, and following this raid it was deemed necessary to occupy the plain for the protection of the city thus making an additional commitment of two battalions

Nor does the frontier problem end at the Durand line—the frontier between India and Afghanistan. This is merely a line on the map. Tribal territory extends beyond it and even when those tribes on the Indian side are pacified there will still remain the necessity for troops to protect the tribes on the Indian side from their neighbors on the other. Thus at present in the Zhob district of Baluchistan, a district long since comparatively peaceful, there are main-

tained five battalions and several batteries of artillery for protection against trans-border tribes.

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THUS it is apparent that the majority of the covering troops are committed for years to come to definite tasks from which they cannot be withdrawn without definite risks. Less than half are available for any special operation such as a punitive expedition. It is characteristic of all operations on the frontier that the forces required to protect the line of communication are very much greater than the striking force unless the line of communication is very short. So many troops are needed for this duty that, except in very minor expeditions, the present available covering troops are quite incapable of providing them in addition to even a small striking force. Thus in every recent frontier expedition it has been found necessary to reinforce the covering troops with units from the field army.

It should be noted that none of the four cavalry regiments and only five of the forty-four battalions in the covering troops are British Indian troops are well fitted for these duties but if British troops are to remain in India, as they must, they cannot always be retained on the duties of internal security which afford little training for war, but must be given a reasonable share in frontier operations to keep them efficient.

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THE FIELD army is the force maintained in India to deal with aggression from beyond the frontier. It is not possible in this paper to discuss fully its probable or possible roles. It should be noted, however, that Afghanistan is a state whose governments are notoriously unstable, and that as recently as 1919 the Afghan army invaded India via the Khyber and the Kurram. While the Afghan army is probably not a very formidable organization it must be remembered that in Afghanistan are more than one hundred thousand armed tribesmen whose characteristics and fighting qualities are similar to those of their kinsmen on the Indian side of the Durand line. These constitute the real fighting strength of the country.

Tribal risings in Afghanistan almost invariably spread into cis-border tribal territory and should such risings take place on a large scale it might well compel the despatch of the field army into Afghanistan to restore order.

The present strength of the field army is only four divisions and four cavalry brigades, one division being incomplete. As two brigades are in Bengal on internal security duties the actual available strength is scarcely three divisions. In 1914 the strength was about seven divisions so that it may easily be seen how drastic has been the reduction already since the war.

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THE PRESENT strength of the R.A.F. in India is only eight squadrons, of which four are army co-operation and four are bombing squadrons.

The R.A.F. in recent years has played a considerable and valuable part in assisting to control the tribes of the frontier territories. The air forces of most of the powers have been steadily increased and the possibilities of an air attack on India cannot be overlooked. It does not appear that the government of India has made any undue provision to meet these risks.

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FROM time to time formations of the field army have been sent abroad on tasks of an Imperial nature. When so used the cost is borne by the British government except by the consent of the government of India. In addition the British government last year awarded India £1,500,000 as compensation for what India was adjudged to have contributed towards Imperial defence. Nevertheless the argument has been advanced that if India can spare such troops it is evidence that they are superfluous to her own needs. Apart from the fact that trouble, for example, in Shanghai certainly affects Indian interests such arguments are superficial and unsound. Forces sent out of India on such missions are sent with full knowledge of the political situation at the time and the risk of their absence from India has been calculated. To send a force away from India for a few weeks or months and to abolish that force completely are two entirely different things. A force absent on foreign duty can be returned or replaced from Great Britain in a few weeks should the necessity arise. Having abolished it, to raise a new one is a matter of many months or even years. The mere existence of a strong Indian defence force is a powerful deterrent to aggression even though a small part of it may temporarily be absent from India.

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IF THE sum now devoted to the defence of India, or even a large part of it, could be diverted to other purposes the development of the country would certainly be accelerated. But it is illogical to argue for that reason that the cost of the military forces of India is unnecessarily hampering the development of the country without first ascertaining what would be likely to happen if those forces proved unequal to their great dual task of preserving internal order and ensuring security against external aggression.

Above all India requires social development before she can achieve real progress. Social development is impossible where feelings of insecurity and mutual mistrust exist. Under the protection of the defence forces of India the famines, plagues and internecine wars which formerly were commonplace have been almost eliminated and the country has been preserved from the effects of the tribal raids and the invasions which periodically swept into it from the North West Frontier and beyond.

In recent years, for reasons of economy, the defence forces have been considerably reduced. The foregoing arguments are intended to show the problem of defence which faces the government of India, and to indicate that the limit of safety in reduction has now been reached. In their famous report on India, published in 1930 the Simon Commission stated that

the outstanding fact is that the urgency and extent of the problem of military defence in India are without parallel elsewhere in the Empire.

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The Story of a European Crisis

By Captain H. G. Scott

ON THE 29th of September, 1935, in the little Baltic seaport of Memel the troubled affairs of Europe reached a crisis. It was not a long crisis, but it was none the less a crisis, which might have been of serious import for Europe and the world.

It may be well at the outset to recall the historical background of Memel. Up till the end of the Great War Memel was part of Germany. Immediately to the east of the town and district lay the great Empire of the Russian Czars. The end of the War saw the whole map of Europe changed. The Russian frontier was moved eastwards. On the Baltic coast several small countries came to life—Esthonia, Latvia and Lithuania. Poland came back from the dead after 125 years. East Prussia was cut off from the main body of Germany by the restored Polish Corridor.

Up until the destruction of Poland at the end of the 18th century Poland and Lithuania had for some centuries been united, although the two peoples are not akin in racial origin. When the end of the War brought them both back to independent existence, the old union was not renewed. They were given separate independence. Lithuania as reconstituted has no seaport, and the Allied Powers therefore considered that it was desirable to give her access to the sea through the port of Memel. Memel, however, was almost wholly German in population, so that it was not thought desirable to annex the town directly to Lithuania, and it was created a free city somewhat after the model of Dantzic further west along the Baltic coast. The intention was that while Memel remained a free city managing its own local affairs, it should have a customs union with Lithuania which would allow the trade of Lithuania pass freely to the sea through the port of Memel.

Unfortunately, things turned out otherwise. Poland seized the city and district of Vilna, which had been given to Lithuania under the peace treaties. Lithuania protested bitterly against this act of violence and shortly after did almost exactly the same sort of thing, for she seized Memel by force. A sort of constitution was given to the town and district within Lithuanian sovereignty. A Diet of 29 members elected by universal suffrage was provided for, but the Governor and the Executive Council were appointed by Lithuania, though it was piously hoped that the Council would enjoy the confidence of the Diet.

The arrangement did not work. Governor and Council were constantly at loggerheads with the Diet. The Lithuanian Government then proceeded to scuttle the Diet by an ingenious method. Under the constitution 20 members were required for a quorum. Of

the 29 elected members 24 were Germans, and only five Lithuanians, a proportion which represented roughly the numbers of Germans and Lithuanians respectively in the Memel area. The Lithuanian Government arrested five of the German members and charged them with high treason on the ground that they had conspired with Germany for the seizure of Memel and its return to Germany. There was evidence to support the charge, though just how far what had been going on was real treason and conspiracy or more or less harmless and natural consultations and conversations between prominent Germans in Memel and leading Germans in Berlin it is not easy to say. Anyhow, the trial resulted in the conviction of the accused who were sentenced to death. A terrific clamour went up in Germany at this sentence. It was, however, not carried out, but commuted to imprisonment for life. That disposed of five of the German members in the Diet. Then the five Lithuanian members withdrew from the Diet, presumably in conformity with directions from the Lithuanian Government. That left only 19 members of the Diet available for sittings. They could not form a quorum, and the Diet ceased to function, leaving the Lithuanian Governor and Executive Council to carry on the administration of Memel unimpeded by the German representatives.

While these things were happening in Memel, Germany was steadily recovering strength under the Nazi regime. The re-armament secret or open was going on unceasingly, and the whine of defeated and helpless Germany was changing to the growl of convalescent Germany. In face of what was going on in Memel that growl became so loud and menacing that the Allied Powers, Britain, France, and Italy, advised Lithuania that it would be well for her to heed the German protests and bring the Memel Diet to life again. The advice was taken, and the Lithuanian Government announced that on the 29th of September, 1935, a new election to choose a Diet would be held in Memel.

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TO UNDERSTAND the effect of this announcement it is necessary to keep in view the whole European background. That background is dominated by one feature—the lost territories of Germany and her determination to recover them.

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The Treaty of Versailles left Germany not only without any overseas colonies, but also surrounded by a ring of lost provinces in Europe. Alsace-Lorraine, Eupen and Malmedy, the Rhineland, the Saar, Schleswig, Dantzig and Memel, Posen, Silesia, South Tirol—all these lost lands made and make their constant appeal to the German people. That they are inhabited by people who in the case of most of them were not Germans and do not wish to be under the German flag, has made no difference. They had once been part of the German Empire. That is enough for Germany. The Rhineland was restored after some ten or twelve years of Allied occupation, before the time stipulated in the Versailles Treaty. The Saar was got back by plebiscite. The next attempt was made towards Austria, and a campaign of violence which included every form of outrage, stopping short at nothing, was carried on against little Austria in the hope of compelling that country to join Germany. In the course of that campaign Dollfuss, the gallant little Austrian Chancellor, was murdered, but the campaign failed—failed in face of the mobilization of the Italian army on the Brenner frontier, and the open intimation from Mussolini that the German occupation of Austria would mean war.

Germany then turned her eyes eastwards, and found herself faced by a Poland by no means disposed to wait for the German army to complete its preparations before launching an attack. Faced again with the choice of immediate war or abandonment of threats and propaganda. Germany again drew back, and made with Poland that unexpected treaty which provided that for ten years neither country should try to alter the common frontier by force.

The restless German eyes then turned to the Baltic coast and to the lost territory of Memel. The announcement of the election for the 29th of September was taken as a testing time. The Germans in public speeches and through a strictly controlled press made it clear that if the Germans of Memel did not get fair play from their Lithuanian rulers, the Germans of Germany would come and get it for them. All Europe at once realized that that might mean another war.

The result was that as the 29th of September drew near a remarkable gathering took place in the little town of Memel. The representatives of almost every country in Europe were there, and also the representatives of the United States and of Japan. The chief hotel in Memel, the Hotel Victoria, housed a truly cosmopolitan assembly, and the dining-room of the hotel on the evening before the election was an intensely interesting place. In one corner the Poles were gathered. Close to them was a table of Frenchmen. At another table the British and Americans had joined forces. Elsewhere in the room were Greeks, Italians, Dutch, Russians. At a small table in the middle of the room one man sat alone till a tall, fair, erect young man came quickly in and joined him. His coming caused a little hush in the buzz of conversation, and curious looks were turned on him as he came. "A German," whispered someone. At the next table to the newcomer's an official of the Lithuanian Foreign Office was dining,

and before the German sat down he exchanged with the Lithuanian a formal bow which suggested the salute of duellists before they cross swords.

The hotel buzzed with rumours. One man had heard that a strong and completely mechanized German army was concentrated on the Niemen frontier of Lithuania at Tilsit, ready to seize the bridge over the river and dash on Memel. Another had seen the German fleet hovering off Memel harbour. Some one else said that the Lithuanians had twenty thousand men on their side of the frontier to meet any German invasion. The French newspaper correspondents declared that their telegrams to Paris were being deliberately delayed in Berlin, so that crucial hours were being lost in the receipt of the news in Paris. Everyone was asking what was likely to happen the next day when the voting took place. The Lithuanians themselves noted the fact that correspondents from almost all the great countries of the world were on the spot, and drew the conclusion that they had been attracted by the smell of gunpowder.

In one corner of the dining-room two little men sat quietly watching. They were the Japanese representatives, the most significant feature in the whole gathering. Their presence suggested that Japan was watching to see whether the election was to furnish Germany with the pretext for breaking the line of frontiers imposed on her at Versailles, whether Lithuania would oppose that advance by force, whether behind Lithuania would stand the power of Russia, whether Europe was about to go up in flames again, and whether that conflagration would be the signal for another step forward by Japan in her march to the mastery of Eastern Asia.

Sunday, the 29th of September, the election day, was a clear sunny mild day. In that respect it was in happy contrast to the days immediately preceding it, which had been wet, stormy, and cold. The change in the weather may have had some effect on the history of Europe, for a bad day might have had very serious results. Just why will be apparent when the system of voting is explained.

* * * * *

THERE were 29 seats to be filled and there were 168 candidates for those seats. There were no separate constituencies as in British elections. Each voter could name 29 candidates for election. The names of all the 168 candidates were made up in a sort of book, six names to a page, each name being divided from the next by a perforated line. Each voter on entering the polling room was given one of these books, with which he or she retired to a polling booth, and there tore from the book the names of 29 candidates which the voter placed in an envelope, sealed it, and handed it to the presiding officer to be put in the ballot box.

With a highly educated, intelligent electorate such a method of voting would have been slow. With the simple fishing and farming folk of Memel it produced the utmost delay. The polls opened at 8 a.m. By 8.30 there were queues 30 to 40 yards long in the streets. By midday the queues were several hundred yards long. A good

performance by a voter in getting his vote recorded occupied about 17 minutes. Most took far longer. One earnest soul occupied a polling booth for four hours. There was no chance of the people in the queues getting rest or refreshment. They simply had to stand there for hour after hour, moving slowly, slowly, towards the doors of the polling rooms. The importance of the weather is thus made evident. If the day had been wet and cold, it is hard to believe that the crowds could have endured this waiting without serious disturbances. Even in the mild sunshine their patience was remarkable, and indicated the resolute determination of these Germans to record their votes at all costs.

The writer was able to arrange with the Lithuanian authorities to watch the election in the company of the Chief of the Lithuanian Frontier Police, M. Rimdjus, a former general of the Russian Imperial Army in the Great War. It was obvious that the main burden of the election was carried by the Lithuanian police. It lay with them to prevent what the Germans across the frontier were hoping for—disturbances and bloodshed, which would give to the German army a good excuse for intervening to save what they would call the massacre of their fellow-Germans in Memel by the Lithuanian authorities.

During the morning the writer went round the polling stations in Memel itself. There were no disturbances. The voting was going on slowly but quietly, and not the most bitter German partisan could say that the electors were not getting perfectly fair play in the recording of their votes. There was no interference and no sign of intimidation by the Lithuanian authorities or their police.

In the afternoon M. Rimdjus took the writer on a motor run round the polling stations in the country. About 15 miles from Memel the first sign of trouble appeared. The polling station was a small country school house, and round it surged a mob of about 200 people, and a very angry mob it was, which shouted and swayed and shook fists and sticks. The doors of the school house were closed and in front of them stood a small company of Lithuanian police, their rifles showing over the heads of the mob. Voting had stopped.

The Chief of Police got out of his car and made his way through the mob to the doors, where he consulted the commander of the police

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detachment. He ascertained that what had happened was that a man had appeared in the crowd a short time earlier and had spread a story that at the next polling station a few miles off the books of candidates' names were being given out into the street, so that voters could tear out the names at their ease and then carry the envelopes with them into the polling station, and so avoid all the delay and fatigue of standing in the queues. As soon as this story was spread, the crowd round the second polling station demanded a similar privilege, and when it was refused, they rushed the doors and swarmed into the polling room intent on trouble. Just in time the Lithuanian officials in charge telephoned for the police reserves, who hurried up in a big motor lorry, cleared the mob out of the polling room, closed the doors and took up their position in front of them, stopping all further voting for the time being.

The Chief of Police acted quickly. He took one man from the crowd and brought him back to the car, and then drove off to the other polling station, where it had been said the ballots were being given out into the street. There it was found that the story was wholly untrue, that voting was going on without disturbance in a regular and legal manner. It was obvious that the story was a hoax intended to cause trouble. The Chief drove straight back to the scene of the disturbance, went into the heart of the crowd with his witness and explained the falsity of the story. He also informed the crowd that the Lithuanian cabinet had decided that because of the slowness of the voting, another whole day would be allowed for voting, so that no elector could say that he or she had not had a chance to vote.

* * * * *

THIS tactful and courageous handling of an ugly situation ended the disturbance at once. The mob quieted down. The doors were opened and voting began again. At another polling station, however, the same story had been spread about, and in that case the police were not in time. The mob stormed the station, attacked the Lithuanian officials in charge and the two policemen, beat them savagely, and left them senseless on the ground, burned the ballot box and destroyed the station. It was at first thought that some of the injured officials had been killed, but fortunately they recovered.

The news of this riot brought the most serious moment of the whole crisis. The Lithuanian cabinet, hearing of the attack on their officials, proposed to send regular troops to deal drastically with the German mob. The Minister of one of the Allied Powers strongly advised against this action. He pointed out to the Lithuanian cabinet that if they did this, they would be playing right into the hands of the Germans across the frontier, who were hoping for bloodshed as a pretext for armed intervention. He advised the Lithuanians, therefore, to avoid the use of troops, to rely only on their police, and to keep the police as much under control as possible.

This advice was taken. The troops were not sent and the police got the situation in hand. It was announced that a second vote would

be taken at the station where the ballot box had been destroyed, and this was done a week later.

With this decision the crisis passed its height. Excitement began to drop. It was clear that the Germans had no excuse for intervention, and the second day's voting was quiet and without incident. The result of the election was another big German majority, 24 Germans being elected against 5 Lithuanians, the same result as in the previous Diet. That Diet is now functioning fairly smoothly, but the essential problem has been brought no nearer solution than before. The solution has been postponed and that is all.

So ended the Memel crisis, leaving the position in Europe much as before. The essence of that position is the ancient duel between Teuton and Slav, with Japan in the Asiatic background, hoping to reap advantage from Europe's conflict. What the future course of events will be it is impossible to forecast but one can hardly watch this great European drama without the feeling that it cannot end except in tragedy for the nations involved and for the world.

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The Tactical Employment of Artillery

By Lieut.-Col. J. Crossley Stewart, D.S.O.

WHAT I am about to talk on is all in the various text books dealing with the subject and a great deal will simply be a repetition of those paragraphs. I have tried to keep strictly to principles as already laid down and to avoid anything that is of a controversial nature

The first principle to be recognized in the employment of the guns is that Artillery is an auxiliary arm. The guns can assist very materially in an assault or a defence but it is the man with the bayonet who must gain the final decision.

"The full power of an army can be exerted only when all its parts act in close combination and this is not possible unless the members of each arm understand the characteristics of the other arms. Each has its special characteristics and functions and is dependent on the co-operation of the others", and hence, though it is recognized that Artillery cannot win battles without other arms, the close co-operation of the Artillery is most essential. And to obtain the greatest benefit from this co-operation, the artillery must be handled intelligently in accordance with the principles laid down and the situation of the moment. Artillery is one of the principal means by which superiority of fire is gained.

"The role of the artillery is to assist the other arms in breaking down opposition and to afford them all possible support." This is carried out in various manners according:—

1. To the tactical situation.
2. The nature of the country.
3. The size and composition of the forces engaged.

There is no single artillery equipment that is suitable to work in all natures of country or mobile enough to work with all kinds of troops and still be powerful enough to do all kinds of work. It therefore becomes necessary to have different sizes and kinds of equipment, namely:

1. Guns of various calibres.
2. Howitzers of various calibres.
3. Mortars of various calibres.

Also that units of artillery (i.e. Batteries) be grouped in various artillery formations to carry out the various roles.

* * * * *

IT WOULD not be out of the way at this point to go into a few of the characteristics of the various artillery weapons. The chief features of the guns are:—

- (a) High velocity.
- (b) Flat trajectory.
- (c) Quick firing.

The flat trajectory gives shrapnel a deep searching effect and their high velocity enables them to retain their killing power at long ranges. In choosing positions crest clearance must be taken in consideration.

The chief characteristics of howitzers are:—

- (a) Low velocity.
- (b) Comparatively steep angle of departure and descent.
- (c) Variable charges.

Allowing them to take advantage of steep banks, etc. for cover, giving a good plunging effect to their shells, and fire well over the heads of the infantry. They have, however, more back splash than gun shells.

The chief features of mortars are: very great shell power and ability to develop an accurate and highly destructive fire at short ranges. Gun fire shrapnel, H. E. and smoke; howitzers all but shrapnel. Star and incendiary shells are occasionally used.

The latest field guns can fire 20 rounds per minute with well trained gun crews, if necessary, but this rate cannot be kept up without wearing out the gun rapidly and tiring the detachment. Rapid fire should be considered as a reserve of fire power for critical moments or special tasks.

* * * * *

GUNS AND howitzers are classified according to their natures, weights and uses as follows:—

Artillery of the field army consists of —

	Gun	How.
Anti-Aircraft	3 in 10 cwt.	—
Light and Mountain Artillery	2.75	3.7"
	(in India only)	
Horse Artillery	13 prs.	—
Field Artillery	18 prs.	4.5"
Medium Artillery	60 pr.	6"
Heavy Artillery	6"	8" and 9.2"
Super Artillery	9.2"	12"
	12"	18"
	14"	—

These guns and howitzers are grouped or brigaded in the field according to their ability to perform the work which is expected of them; i.e. the brigade of light artillery which under former conditions was designed only to work in mountainous

or broken country which affords cover to the guns, in gullies, ravines or behind clumps of trees or bush, but give cover to the enemy by these same features, was made up of three batteries of howitzers and one of guns this still being the case in Indian Mountain Brigades. Since the light battery has become an arm of accompaniment for the infantry and part of the Divisional organization now obsolescent the formation of the brigade of light artillery consists of three batteries of howitzers; one battery to each brigade of a Division. The 2.75 gun is not considered of much use in close support owing to its flat trajectory and flat angle of arrival, (Battle of Neuve Chappelle, 1915, two batteries 2.75), the howitzer being superior in this instance to bring a plunging fire into machine gun nests or whatever is holding up the attack. The first howitzers to be used in close support of infantry were 4.5" howitzers at the Aisne in 1914. A good deal of discussion took place concerning the use of the 3.7" howitzer, having been found to be unsatisfactory against tanks, owing to its high trajectory and low muzzle velocity, but anti-tank defence is still included as their role even though the Infantry have their own anti-tank weapon.

Light artillery does not possess the same degree of mobility as field artillery but can travel over ground which would prove impossible to any other guns. With the development of wireless for artillery communications it is probable that the 3.7 howitzer will disappear as an arm of accompaniment.

* * * * *

THE BRIGADE of Field Artillery, is designed for work, more or less in open country, and, for the actual support of Infantry, is made up of three batteries of guns and one of howitzers. Here we have the necessity for a weapon to fight troops in the open and the best ammunition for that is shrapnel with which the best effect is obtained when firing it from a gun. Some people contend that H.E. with a 106 fuse is effective, but that is a matter of opinion and very controversial. The one battery of howitzers more or less balances the Brigade. There is a good deal of talk of forming brigades of two guns and two Howitzer batteries.

After the Great War mortars were placed in grease and returned to Ordnance. In the late war they were never a mobile arm but a very powerful weapon when properly used. Now Carden Lloyd tractors with mortars have been included in the equipment of infantry battalions.

* * * * *

THE VARIOUS roles that the artillery are called on to take in open warfare can be divided broadly into:—

- (1) Close support of Infantry.
- (2) Indirect support which may be sub-divided into—
 - (a) Destructive shoots to destroy enemy guns, etc.
 - (b) Concentrations to destroy enemy material and personnel.

- (c) Neutralization, designed to silence enemy batteries temporarily.
- (d) Harassing fire, to make it impossible for enemy troops to feel safe from shell fire at any time of the day or night.
- and (e) Defence of artillery areas against tanks (local defence).

* * * * *

AS HAS already been stated, the duty of the artillery is to assist the other arms in breaking down opposition and to afford them all possible support. Infantry require the closest liasion between Artillery and Infantry commanders.

For the purpose of directing and controlling the fire of his batteries it is essential that an artillery commander should know—

- (1) What the immediate object is.
- (2) Exactly where the infantry that he is supporting is from time to time.
- (3) The obstacles which are preventing it from obtaining that objective.

Infantry must keep artillery notified of their position and indicate clearly when and where artillery fire is required. How best to give the required support is purely an artillery problem. Although I have stated that the infantry must keep the artillery informed, yet this does not absolve the artillery commander from taking all steps to keep himself informed as to the conduct of the battle and giving support where required even though not asked for.

To assist infantry most effectively, (except barrage fire with good maps), a Battery Commander requires to have direct observation of the ground on which the action is taking place

When Artillery is in close support of Infantry, it should not be detailed to support a smaller unit than a battalion, and not less than a section should be detailed.

Close support does not mean that the guns are advancing close up to the leading Infantry. Field guns can fire as effectively at 1,000 to 1,500 yards as at 500 yards, if not more effectively. Also the flatness of trajectory should be considered. With the advent of wireless close support is simplified.

The placing of the headquarters of the Infantry and Artillery together is most advantageous. The Artillery commander must be, however, close to his batteries and the Infantry commander should come and live near him. When this is not possible the Artillery commander is responsible for detailing a liasion officer, but it must be clearly understood that a liasion officer is not an executive officer.

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LET US now turn to the role of Artillery with the various formations it may find itself in co-operation with and the various tasks that formation may be called upon to undertake.

Outpost troops usually consist of all arms. Artillery is very rarely used, except in the protection of a large force or when the outposts hold the ground which the main body is to occupy in case of an attack. The duty of outposts is for observation and resistance, and it is for resistance that the Artillery can be useful. Its particular mission must be to deal with hostile artillery, sweep the main approaches and likely assembly areas and deal with enemy's tanks.

The distance of the outpost position from the troops protected is regulated by the time which the latter will require to prepare for action and by the importance of preventing the enemy's field artillery from approaching within effective range of the ground on which these troops will deploy if attacked.

The disposition of the Artillery is therefore largely affected by the depth of the outpost zone. If the outpost zone is shallow the bulk of the Artillery will be able to cover both it and the main battle positions from the same emplacements, as was the case along the Vimy front in 1918. If on the other hand the outpost zone is very deep, some Artillery will have to be located in it (as was the case in front of Berrasheba in the Palestine Campaign) and be prepared to fight a rear guard action towards the main position.

In most cases, medium artillery of the main position will be able to reach well outside the outpost line (60 prs. range 15,000-16,000)

Artillery will generally not be withdrawn at night.

* * * * *

THE DUTY of an advance guard being to prevent delay to the march of the main body and to give the main body time to deploy for attack, the commander of the Artillery of the advance guard will accompany the advance guard commander on the march so that he may receive early instructions as to his action.

The advance guard Artillery must afford its Infantry vigorous and immediate support. A bold combination of fire and movement will best assist to sweep away a minor opposition. To this end it

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is generally advisable when contact with enemy is expected that Batteries or sections should be leap-frogged or concertinaed so that some guns are always in action while others are on the move.

The whole of the resources should be used if necessary, it being remembered that a strong show of force will impose the commander's will on the enemy, and also one always has the main body coming up as a reserve if necessary.

The occupation of concealed positions, a wide dispersion of available guns (taking into consideration the difficulty of control and communications) with an adequate expenditure of ammunition will assist to deceive the enemy as to the strength of the forces opposed to him and may contribute materially to the success of the operation.

The early deployment of sufficient Artillery will confer the advantage of opening an engagement with a number of guns superior to that of the enemy and thus afford strong support under cover of which the infantry of the main body can deploy. Some medium artillery with the advance guard may prove very valuable.

To hold Artillery far back in the column when contact with the enemy is expected, or to dribble it into action piecemeal is all against the principle of developing artillery fire in maximum volume at the decisive point and time and may result in failure to drive back the enemy's advance troops.

Subordinate Artillery commanders must co-operate with the Infantry and other units on their front, acting on their own initiative in conformity with such general instructions as they may have received. They must act with the greatest boldness.

* * * * *

THE OBJECT of a rear guard is to gain time and then withdraw without becoming too deeply engaged. This is best effected by compelling the enemy to deploy for attack as frequently and at as great a distance as possible. The rear guard should therefore be strong in mobile artillery.

The Artillery commander should accompany the rear guard commander in order that he may have early information as to the next position to be occupied, its extent and general disposition for its occupation.

Artillery should retire by bounds of batteries (or sections) so as always to have guns in action.

Medium artillery allotted to a rear guard should retire by large bounds, their positions becoming the skeleton of the positions for the field artillery. In country where the roads run through defiles or where there are canals or difficult ground which more or less confine the pursuit to the roads, medium artillery is a great asset to a rear guard.

In a rear guard action open positions are most unsuitable as batteries become pinned to their ground by the enemy (as at the

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Battle of Le Cateau, 1914). Positions under cover with as little dead ground as possible are preferable.

The flanks of a rear guard are important and some guns should be employed in their defence. Tanks also are liable to become a factor and should be arranged for by giving guns as great a field of fire over open sights as possible.

Though loss of equipment is to be avoided, it is justified if it has to be sacrificed to accomplish its object. The old saying, "the end justifies the means," still holds good.

The routes of retirement should always be carefully reconnoitred to the next position, an officer being sent back for this purpose..

* * * * *

ATTACKS may be of two types.—
(a) Encounter.
(b) Deliberate.

While in the attack, care and secrecy in preparation are essential to surprise, in the encounter attack rapid and resolute action is the foundation of success.

In the encounter attack, although preparatory arrangements must to a great extent be dispensed with, a well co-ordinated plan of attack is none the less necessary.

The number of guns and the quantity of ammunition available will limit the volume of fire possible. The closest co-operation between the Artillery and Infantry is essential. Instructions should therefore be issued beforehand as to the units of the two arms which are to co-operate for each distinct tactical operation. Highly centralized Artillery control will generally be impossible in the encounter battle.

Good observation for the Artillery is most desirable. The Air Service can assist the Artillery very greatly by sending in messages both by wireless and dropping messages of suitable targets and observing fire.

To attempt a lengthy timed programme in the indefinite conditions which obtain in the early stages of an encounter battle is a waste of ammunition and will in all probability be no help to the Infantry; in fact such action may impede them.

When practical, it is an advantage to arrange a time after which fire must cease on certain areas. Such an arrangement is a precaution in case of visibility or communications fail. This simple form of timing must on no account be allowed to develop into a lengthy timed Artillery programme. A programme should not exceed twenty minutes, as it can readily be seen that the situation changing might hold up our own troops.

* * * * *

A BARRAGE will rarely be possible in the encounter battle on account of the amounts of ammunition available. The frontage of each 18 pdr. should not be more than thirty yards. The Artillery should bring bursts of fire to bear on localities which are holding the infantry up and may also point out concentrations of the enemy to the attacking Infantry by bursts of fire on a locality. An effective barrage requires one gun to 25 yards or 150 yards per battery. Divisional Artillery 1350 yards or, with Army Brigade attached, 1800 yards with a rate of fire of four rounds per gun, per minute, the whole of the ammunition would be expended in 44 minutes.

Light artillery sections should be pushed well up in close support of battalions to deal with such opposition as is beyond the power of the mortar. The Infantry, however, must never expect that the Artillery alone will be able to deal successfully with all the enemy's machine guns or completely break down his resistance.

In the early stages of the attack the infantry will require the Artillery to subdue the enemy batteries. Then as the attack progresses rifle and machine gun fire. The greater the difficulties of the Infantry the more artillery fire will generally be required.

Advanced artillery must be on the watch for enemy counter attacks and deal with them, if possible, before they develop.

As attacks become halted the Artillery should re-organize as far as possible, control becoming centralized.

* * * * *

IN THE deliberate attack more elaborate preparations and more detailed arrangements can be made than in the case of the encounter attack. The artillery will, at least at first, be under more centralized command.

As the attack progresses the command must become more decentralized (e.g.: Amiens, Aug. 9th Attack at La Follies) and the course of events become similar to the encounter battle. In the deliberate attack the advance of the Infantry will generally be preceded by a barrage (ammunition permitting) and the synchronization of watches will become very important.

A barrage, however, depends very largely on the ammunition supply. At Vimy Ridge my battery fired 5,400 rounds in eight hours

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covering less than 100 yards of front and not firing at greater rate than four rounds per gun per minute. The number of guns and ammunition will have a very important bearing on the mode of attack.

The greatest secrecy in the placing of batteries, bringing up ammunition, etc., is essential. The use of survey methods and silent registration helps this secrecy considerably.

If an attack is preceded by a preliminary bombardment, this bombardment should comprise:

- (1) Counter battery work.
- (2) Enemy infantry and concentration areas.
- (3) Obstacles and other material defences.

Smoke may be used to protect a flank or blind enemy observation posts or assist the advance of our tanks.

Gas, if such is permitted, against woods or villages providing the attacking force does not intend to enter them in the near future.

If the Infantry are to receive the full support of the Artillery during their advance a large portion of the Artillery must be placed well forward to reduce movement and consequent loss of fire power. (Canal du Nord, 1918. 8th Army Bde.). In allotting tasks to the Artillery for the preparation and support of a deliberate attack simplicity should be the keynote of the scheme.

* * * * *

AS LAID down in F.S.R. "the frame work of the defence will be the Artillery and the machine guns. The position must, therefore, be chosen largely from an Artillery and a machine gun point of view and should permit of good ground observation and good concealment for guns while denying these advantages to the attacker.

The foremost defences should be far enough in advance of the localities for Artillery observation to ensure that these localities will not be captured and the eyes of the defence blinded, as a result of a minor attack by the enemy. Full consideration must also be given to anti-tank defence. At the same time defences must be sufficiently close to Artillery observation to ensure their effective support by Artillery.

This is of the greatest importance in the successful placing of Artillery for defensive action, for if it becomes essential for forward observing officers to go to the front line to observe, the greatest difficulty is experienced in keeping up his communication to his unit. He becomes localized and only sees the fight on his immediate front and may personally become embroiled in a fight and, though having a chance to cover himself with glory, fails to carry out his mission of directing the fire of his unit and assisting the infantry with its fire power. A small local attack of no depth would completely blind the Artillery. No amount of predicted shooting with the best of maps or aeroplane observing can compare with good ground observation for effective Artillery fire.

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Observation is always a tactical consideration of the first importance to the Artillery. With good observation fighting boards may be made up by survey methods so that even in the smoke and confusion of battle good unobserved shooting may be carried out.

* * * * *

IN THE defence the principal objects of Artillery fire are.—

- (1) To obstruct the enemy's preparations for attack by systematic bombardment and harassing fire.
- (2) To inflict as heavy casualties as possible during assembly and deployment. To lower his morale.
- (3) To cause them to deploy at a distance, to delay their advance through the zone in which they are exposed to Artillery fire only and to make this advance as laborious and as costly a one as possible.
- (4) To prevent the hostile artillery obtaining the mastery.
- (5) To assist in crushing all assaults threatened or delivered by the enemy.
- (6) To support counter attacks.

Once the enemy's attack is launched, Artillery fire alone cannot arrest and drive back determined troops advancing on a wide front. Attacking troops can only be stopped by the combined effective fire of all arms and the Artillery must make every effort to ensure that its fire is applied where most required.

* * * * *

AT ALL stages of the defensive battle, as in other types of battle, mobile Artillery reserves are of great value, though Artillery reserves are not considered in a division or smaller formation. To use these reserves successfully a thorough preparation, including a careful reconnaissance of the ground as regards possibility of movement, observation and ammunition supply, is essential. When it is desired to throw it into the fight, surprise is a big factor which can only be gained by skillful and bold leadership and use of ground.

All positions should be chosen with as little dead ground as possible, and with a view of this becoming rallying points for the Infantry if required.

In defensive operations elasticity of Artillery control is necessary. During the attack it is essential that initiative should be taken by subordinate formations and units. On the other hand, in the defence, higher commands must at all times be able to concentrate the weight of their Artillery, especially the heavier groups, where required.

The particular tasks demanded of the Artillery and the varying requirements of command can only be satisfactorily met if the whole Artillery organization of the defence is based on the fundamental principles of depth, elasticity and mobility.

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During the smoke of battle observation becomes very difficult and should defensive barrage be used it is very difficult to tell when they should be brought back even though the enemy is known to be advancing. F.S.R. lays down that "a barrage is on no account to be brought back without the sanction of the commander of the sector concerned," etc.

If barrages are used (sufficient Artillery and ammunition being available) the policy should be to force the enemy into lanes where they could be dealt with by machine gun and rifle fire.

* * * * *

ARTILLERY TRAINING, Vol. III, Sec. 5, Para. 5. "In the event of tanks breaking through, it is the duty of all guns that can fire on them direct to engage them whether specially detailed for anti-tank defence or not."

A T. Vol III, Sec 37. "Anti-tank defence in the area occupied by forward Infantry will usually be organized by the Infantry brigade commander". For this they may use Infantry anti-tank weapons and light artillery attached to them. The use of field artillery in positions which may be under the direct observation of the enemy is to be avoided.

Artillery commanders will be responsible for organizing a second line of anti-tank defence in the area occupied by the Artillery by a similar use of obstacles and weapons.

All battery positions should be sited with as large a field of direct fire as possible to engage tanks near their positions.

Tanks can be taken on by F.O.O.'s with their batteries under cover provided they have good communications.

I would like to bring to your attention the para. in F.S.R. where it states:—"The army must be trained to exercise economy in the expenditure of ammunition and other material. Supplies must necessarily be limited and it is of paramount importance that what is available should be put to its most effective use."

* * * * *

IN CONCLUDING I might say that what I have tried to bring out is that to help infantry to maintain its mobility and offensive power by all the means at its disposal is the underlying principle of all Artillery tactics. The commander of the force must give the Artillery the tasks he wishes carried out. The carrying out of the technical details to perform the task should be left to the Artillery.

Further, everyone of us who has the privilege to train and lead soldiers must do our best to train ourselves for that great privilege.

Remember that the lives of the men we lead are dependent on our knowledge.

A knowledge of all arms is essential for the good officer.

The Royal Military College of Canada

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DEPARTMENT OF NATIONAL DEFENCE
OTTAWA, ONTARIO**

by whom full particulars will be furnished.

Canadian Legion B.E.S.L.

Calgary Branch No. 1.

12th March, 1936.

TO:
OFFICERS AND MEMBERS,
ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE.

I appreciate the courtesy which has been extended to the Calgary Branch of the Canadian Legion, in that their President has been granted the privilege of speaking to the members of the Alberta Military Institute through their magazine.

The problem facing the Legion today, is one of finding employment for the fifty thousand men who served their King and Country so nobly, and failing to find them employment some better means of subsistence than relief.

Let us now deal with our unemployment problems at home. In Alberta there are nine hundred and forty-six single ex-service men on relief and prior to the sittings of the Hyndman Commission, medical examination showed only twenty-seven per cent. of the single unemployed ex-service men were physically fit. So we can safely say that war service was a factor in undermining the health of so many men.

The cost to the Provincial Government is \$13.50 per man per month, and the Legion in the strongest possible language has urged that the Federal Government accept the responsibility of all unemployed ex-service men and give them an opportunity to live in a somewhat better manner than that which is provided at present.

Married ex-service men, non-pensioners, receive the rate as provided in their Municipalities, and married pensioners have their pension made up to the equivalent of the Municipal rate.

This is a rather morbid and distressing story but unfortunately it is the truth.

The Legion is looking forward to assisting a large number of men through the War Veterans' Allowance legislation. At March 31st, 1935, seven thousand, one hundred and eighty-six men were receiving benefits from this legislation. The average age of the recipients being sixty years, the oldest recipient being ninety, and the youngest thirty-three.

With amendments to provide for a more flexible Act we hope to have many more of our comrades in receipt of this Allowance.

By membership in the Legion one is at least trying to keep faith.

ALEX WALKER,
President, Calgary No. 1 Branch,
Canadian Legion.

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Among the Recent Books

By Major C. A. Lyndon

ONE of the most interesting books of the year from the point of view of Journal readers is the first volume of Duff-Cooper's "Haig", biography of the man who led the British armies in France from early 1915 to the armistice. The volume comes as a fitting companion to numerous recent memoirs which have purported to depict the inner workings in both military and political circles. Army men and historically-inclined readers will be thankful that the author of "Haig" has seen fit to set out the facts in considerably less vindictive mood than have a number of earlier biographers and autobiographers.

This first instalment of the two-volume biography covers the life of Sir Douglas Haig from the day of his advent into the world, the son of an old Glasgow family, to the close of the Battle of the Somme. Readers need have no militaristic leanings to find interesting reading in the record of the early years leading up to the entry of his life the young officer appears to have displayed the same qualities of thoroughness, loyalty, vigour and sincerity which, in his later years, his friends acclaimed and his enemies assailed. There is little in those early years to indicate that Haig was either pedantic or opposed to progressive action in army work, as has been claimed by critics. There may be some basis for the claim that he was far from being a brilliant student in either civil or military subjects, but his entire service as a junior staff officer is dominated by action that was both progressive and sagacious. In the matter of ability to diagnose the shortcomings of the services and to ferret out ways and means of correcting those deficiencies he seems to have stood out definitely above his contemporaries. His service in India, and the changes in training in the army in India which he was instrumental in introducing are a splendid illustration of that fact.

Sir Douglas Haig's early service, too, covering, as it did, foreign service, and contact on those tours of duty with all arms of the fighting forces was admirable training for a young officer who was, unconsciously, schooling himself to lead the armies of the Empire. The service in India was followed by service in the Boer campaign, in which his work drew the attention and commendation of the Commander-in-Chief. It was in the South African campaign that he came to know Sir John French, with whom he worked in close harmony, under whom he served in France in '14 and '15, and whom, in the course of events, he was to supersede as Commander-in-Chief of the Army in France. The entire period, as recorded by Duff-Cooper is interesting reading as well as informative history.

While Haig was not always in harmony with those responsible for the building up of the British armies, there appears to have been no great divergence of views until just prior to the outbreak of war in 1914. The future commander appears to have gauged with considerable accuracy the magnitude of the dangers ahead and the lack of proper preparation to meet them. The stability of his decisions during the dark days of 1914, his resolute command of his force during the days of the '14 retreat, and his insistence that pursuit be pushed to the point of exhaustion after the Marne all appear in keeping with the man of earlier years depicted by the biographer. It was during the Marne days and immediately thereafter that Haig appeared to sense that Sir John French was not adequate to the new conditions of warfare, and one watches this conviction grow through page after page of this biography. One need not read between the lines to sense the poignant regret on the part of Haig that Sir John French should have taken so personally the passing of command to Haig in 1915. The friendship that had developed on the veldt during the Boer Campaign seems to have been completely obliterated by this move. Haig, on his part, whether or not he expected to be given the supreme command on the retirement of French, certainly leaves no reason for any criticism that he was seeking the removal of Sir John from any personal motives. His immediate and energetic reorganization of the Expeditionary Force, and the positive nature of his command were but an honest demonstration of what he felt the modern commander required to do.

The latter days of the war were beyond question the trying ones—enthusiasm waned, the public and the politically-minded were more critically inclined, and the Commander-in-Chief found himself called upon to secure victory while at the same time faced with the necessity of conserving man-power. It is in this period that Sir Douglas Haig fell into the bad graces of some of those directing the government, notably, it now appears, Mr. Lloyd George, who has recently written some very caustic comment in his "Memoirs". That a feeling of quasi-confidence in professional politicians generally, and in Lloyd George particularly, to some degree, was reciprocated on Haig's part has been tactfully, and perhaps more commendably than in the case of Mr. Lloyd George's "Memoirs", set down by Duff-Cooper.

There are a score of interesting features to the volume and only reading it will give the complete picture which it is aimed to portray. The story of the outstanding actions in which the army took part have been recorded from the viewpoint of the commander, with the Somme "show", its reasons, actions and results, given considerable space.

There are many military men who are critical of the practice of commanders writing memoirs but that should not deter them from studying this well-done biography of our war time commander.

(Haig—Duff-Cooper; Toronto, MacMillans).

One need not be a son of the sea, or even be very keenly interested in naval matters thoroughly to enjoy reading the second volume of the "Memoirs of Sir Roger Keyes, 1916-1918". The book covers such a period of action, and is so aggressively written that it is engrossing reading even to those who still have no interest in developing sea-legs.

Sir Roger's earlier volume covered his service with the Fleet up to the evacuation of Gallipoli. The present one, carrying on from that point, completes the story of his participation in Fleet activities during the Salonika campaign, a short tour of duty at the Admiralty following Jutland, his command of the battleship "Centurion" at Scapa and Invergordon, and the reorganization of the Dover Patrol under his direction from the opening of 1918. Sir Roger has come to be regarded as the exponent of that aggressive school of naval thought whose tenets knew little justification for a naval policy which kept the world's greatest fleet anchored in North Sea bases most of the war, and even very much "on leash" when ordered into action. Rightly or wrongly, and, in the light of our present knowledge of the operation of "U" boats, no doubt in good measure wrongly, this school of thought stood for driving home the naval thrust to the hilt before recalling the Fleet when once it was engaged. His espousal of that doctrine, and the fact that when he assumed an independent command he proceeded to apply the doctrine, serve to add considerable to the interest in his memoirs.

One of the outstanding contributions of the volume is the Admiral's study of the Battle of Jutland. So clearly and graphically are the phases of that encounter set out that, once again, even a landsman will feel not only quite at ease in following the course of the action, but he will be equally as interested as the reader who leans to the sea. His comment on the outcome of the action, and on both its shortcomings and its displays of tactical brilliance deserve more than passing thought.

No less valuable, and beyond question considerably more engrossing for the average reader is the story of the Zeebrugge action in April, 1918, and its less-successful Ostend counterpart. Admiral Keyes, it will be recalled, was in command of the blocking force—the operation was, in fact, one of his plans for checking the 'U' Boat menace—and the affair was typical of the Keyes type of action, daringly conceived, painstakingly planned, and brilliantly executed. The story, with accompanying photographs of the blocked canal entrance read like fiction of the Drake era.

Through the entire volume runs the graphic story of the magnitude of the task imposed upon the navy by the skilful use by Germany of the 'U' Boat and the minefield, and of the measure of success which rewarded the efforts of the fleet in the emergency. The development of the Channel defences by the Dover Patrol under Sir Roger Keyes is typical of the anti-submarine campaign that eventually gained supremacy over the under-water arm.

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Military men and general readers will find as absorbing reading in this volume as will their naval cousins.

("Naval Memoirs of Sir Roger Keyes—1916-1918"; Toronto: Nelsons).

Those Journal readers who have made earlier acquaintance with the writings of General Sir George MacMunn are certain to welcome his latest effort "The Crimea in Perspective". Just as his recent "India Mutiny" provided us with a splendid and well-proportioned long-range view of that tragic period in India, so this new volume constitutes a carefully balanced story of the Crimean campaign, delightfully flavored by the passage of time and by the intimate acquaintanceship of Sir George with the land and the peoples involved.

Apart from the really good reading which is characteristic of MacMunn writings, the book contains a wealth of instructive matter for those interested in following the trend of affairs which led to the war with Russia, and in analysing the phases of the campaign. Those of us living in the present war-scare-ridden era should find some food for thought in two sentences in the author's discussion of the causes of the conflict: "Britain in particular had forgotten the uses and customs of war, and suffered, in many ways unduly, from pacific intent"—"Just as Mussolini, in 1934, was credited with the belief that the British Empire is in decay, so the Tsar in 1853." It would seem that the old adage about nothing new under the sun is particularly applicable to the history of modern Britain in its efforts to maintain peace and at the same time be prepared for war.

As to the campaign itself, Sir George goes painstakingly into detail with his record of the several actions which have been emblazoned on the standards of British units. The Alma with its brilliant leadership by Lord Raglan; Balaclava with the glorious and tragic Charge of the Light Brigade and its immortal "Thin Red Line" of the 93rd; Inkerman with its carnage and futility—all as portrayed by General MacMunn provide some interesting studies for military readers. The same may also be said of the siege and fall of Sebastopol, and of the winter campaign wholly unprepared for Crimean blizzards.

The history of the war is rounded out by the story of the special hodge-podge Baltic fleet and its exploits, and by the expeditions into Kars and the Caspian region. General MacMunn has also written interestingly of the tragic inadequacy of the medical services and of the developments which led to the happy traditions surrounding the name of Florence Nightingale.

("The Crimea In Perspective"—General Sir George MacMunn; Toronto, Clarke, Irwin).

ONE field of action of the Great War which our writers have left pretty much alone, and of which we have, consequently read very little is that corner where Russia, Hungary and Roumania meet. The absence of earlier tales of service in that area should help make a welcome for Lieutenant Sergei Kournakoff's "Savage Squadrons" covering two and a half years with the armies of the Tsar. The author relates, with a garnishment that gives a comprehensive picture of the ebb and flow of war on the Eastern front, his services with the Caucasian Native Cavalry in their invasion of Hungary and during the period of the crack-up of the Russian armies. The story is as unique as the character of the force with which the author did duty.

The Caucasian Cavalry, recruited from the hill tribes of the Caucasus, near neighbors of the Don and Kuban Cossacks, and dubbed by their comrades the "Savage Division" made up one of the most colorful and best-disciplined units of the Czar's armies. Born of a race who lived by warring and coming from a region where tribal feuds are still a dominant feature in community life, the several regiments of the division were keen horse-warriors, and played a prominent role in the successes which attended the Russian arms up to the time of the Revolution. Lieutenant Kournakoff has added considerably to the interest in his story by a splendid delineation of the customs, loyalties and traditions which dominated the rank and file of the division. To these ancestral ties and traditions can be traced, beyond doubt, the reason for the loyalty of the Caucasians to the old Russia in spite of the flood of bolshevist propaganda which wrecked the rest of the army. The author relates the contempt with which his unit regarded the new order and the manner in which they welcomed orders to mop up deserting troops and orating agitators. Kournakoff has provided a graphic picture of conditions within the army at the time of the break-up, and of the sanguinary fighting which broke out within units as a result of the refusal of troops remaining loyal to the Tsar to leave their trenches and join in the debacle.

A section of the book which is certain to prove of interest to Journal readers is the story of the march of the Savage Division into Roumania to help them stem the Austro-German invasion of that country. The comment upon Roumania generally, on the character and history of its people, and the exceptionally caustic denouement of the conditions within the Roumanian army will answer most of the queries which a good many of us have asked about this rather strange ally who joined us late in the struggle. Lieutenant Kournakoff certainly has little of a commendatory nature to say of the Roumanians.

The author, scion of a family for generations associated with Muscovite cavalry, and reared in the atmosphere of the Russian court, viewed the disintegration of the old regime from a point of vantage that has made that part of his story most acceptable.

From all these angles this tale of the Savage Squadrons is worthwhile reading.

("Savage Squadrons"—Sergei Kournakoff. New York: Hale, Cushman & Fline).

THOSE of us who must perforce give some thought to wars, their causes and conduct, have an interesting bit of reading in "Terror In The Balkans" by Albert Londres. The book purports to be a picture of the inner workings of a terrorist organization, "Imro", which has become such a force in international affairs as to be the guiding hand behind not only local Balkan dissensions, but also world-wide upheavals.

"Imro", which is the abbreviated name of the Internal Macedonian Revolutionary Organization, is a Balkan-wide society of Macedonians who have pledged themselves to restore the old independence of Macedonia to the remnants which are now incorporated in the several Balkan states. Numerically small, the organization, through its terrorist methods and its secret operatives and because of the dilatory efforts by governments to suppress it, has become one of the dominant factors in Balkan politics. The original objective, when Imro first came into being in 1897, was to free Macedonia from the Turks. Since that time the land of the Macedons has been partitioned among the other states, and the activities of the society have, consequently, become international in character. The author tells a vivid, and at times almost unbelievable, tale of governments overthrown, cabinets decimated by gun-play, and wars provoked by the undercover machinations of the minions of Imro. It seems that the Sarajevo incident and the Marseilles episode which took the life of King Alexander of Jugo-Slavia in October, 1934, were but steps in the plan of the group to fulfil their nationalistic ambition. The statement that, in a period of twelve years the organization had been responsible for the deaths of over four thousand Bulgarians, whether or not it is capable of substantiation, gives some idea of the extent to which the organization has been acknowledged as a political factor in the Balkans.

If the facts are as set out by Mr. Londres one can understand why the Balkans have been termed the powder-barrel of Europe. The book is decidedly of the "popular" type, interestingly written, easily read, and so startling in its revelations as to out-gangster the most sanguinary gangster tales. The fact, though, that the author names many of the men who have been prominent from time to time in the struggles of, and against, the society, and that this list includes many of the outstanding personalities of Balkan affairs of the present century, adds considerable weight to the story he tells.

For its picture of the turbulency of Balkan affairs and of the effect which this sub-rosa organization has had on the entire social

structure of the region, "Terror In The Balkans" is worthy of a reading.

("Terror In The Balkans"—Albert Londres; Toronto: MacMillans).

AT NO time during the past two decades has interest been as keen in Italian affairs as at the present, and and this fact makes the recent appearance of "Garibaldi" by Paul Frischauer a decidedly timely one. The difficulty of understanding much of the present nationalistic trend of affairs in the Italian kingdom is cleared away by the understanding of the background of the present Italy furnished by this well-done biography of the man who, more than any other individual, was responsible for the unification of the peninsula.

Giuseppe Garibaldi gave up the sea-faring life of his fathers at an early age after contact with the patriot Mazzini had fired him with the idea of uniting the small bands of patriots scattered throughout the land into an army that would overthrow the petty states and form a new Roman empire. The story of his life is a story of the rise and fall, and of the eventual success of those patriotic legions. But Garibaldi himself was to suffer the lion's share of the bitterness and persecution that oftentimes befalls his type, and he was to reap little of the reward during his lifetime. Driven from his native land he espoused the cause of the Latin Republics and led their ill-equipped and undisciplined armies through bitter campaigns to bring about the liberation of the present republics. The story after his return to Italy is that of the campaigning of his Thousand and One legion, of its conquest of Sicily and Naples and of his struggle to lay the foundations for an empire which would absorb the group of independent states grown up after the fall of the old Rome.

Frischauer has endowed the entire story with that real fervor that motivated Garibaldi, and with the singleness of purpose which induced him to sacrifice the comforts and normal pursuits of life and to take up the thankless task of trying to rebuild a nation that, because of petty jealousies was little interested in rebirth. Much of that fervor, in perhaps slightly different mould, readers will recognize in the events in Italy during the past few months. The volume is of such unquestionable excellence, and the subject so timely that it deserves an acquaintance.

("Garibaldi"—Paul Frischauer; New York: Kendall & Sharp).

AFEW short remarks should serve to introduce two recent volumes which should be read by Journal readers, but the brevity of the remarks should not be taken as any measure of the excellence of the books themselves, or of the splendid insight they afford into the present state of mind and affairs in the British Isles. Sir Philip Gibbs, covering England in a personal survey, tells us what

the rank and file of the land are thinking in his "England Speaks", while Edwin Muir, crisscrossing Scotland, has presented in "Scottish Journey" a picture of conditions and thoughts of the day north of Berwick and the Tweed.

The wartime voice of the Briton is easy of interpretation, but times of peace have invariably been accompanied by the development of world-wide divergences of opinion among the peoples of the Empire,—divergences which have always led outsiders to conclude that the old Empire with its unity was gone beyond recovery. It is in times such as these that one wonders just what the average Briton is thinking and these splendid volumes provide a portion of the answer.

While the two authors have approached the problem from very different angles, and have presented their stories in just as varied form, the essence of the completed story in each case is a full-face picture of the Mother Isles of today. We need to know just this sort of thing about more of our brethren in the Empire.

("England Speaks"—Sir Philip Gibbs; "Scottish Journey"—Edwin Muir; London: Heinemann; Toronto: Ryerson)

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Certain Aspects of British Strategy

By Major G. H. A. MacMillan, M.C. *The Argyle and Sutherland Highlanders*

Major G. H. A. MacMillan, M.C., The Argyle Sutherland Highlanders, addressed the Alberta Military Institute on Friday, July 26, 1935, at Sarcee Camp, on "Certain Aspects of British Strategy."

He maintained that, during the past three hundred years, although Great Britain had taken part in many wars on the continent of Europe, yet she had never entered any such conflict with a desire to obtain territorial acquisition in Europe, but rather because she feared that her command of the sea was threatened.

He pointed out that today the constitution of the Empire, with each of the Dominions possessing such a large measure of self-government, made calculation as to war efforts in future years more difficult, since none of these governments could bind themselves to common action against an aggressor, short of direct upon their own territory.

The bases of Empire defence, however, seem to rest upon two foundations, namely, the security of sea communication with Great Britain, and the security of the British home territories.

The most important of the sea communications today is that between Great Britain and Australia, via the Mediterranean, India and the Far East.

It is upon this route that most of the regular peace-time garrisons are located.

The security of the home territories is essential, since they are the source of manufacture, while man-power, trade, finance, shipping, etc., and, where the proximity of the British Isles to Europe is considered, it is easy to realize how vulnerable London today is to air attack.

He suggested that the guiding principles underlying the conduct of British strategy today should be the determination to secure the welfare of the people and countries of the Empire, and that Great Britain should never invite or plunge into war in pursuit of an unattainable ideal, but that if and when her vital interests were threatened, she should be ready to make war in their defence.

Preparation to carry out such a policy entails the organization of industry for war-time expansion and the execution of programmes for coast defence at home and abroad, including the completion of the defences of the important naval bases guarding the sea communications of the Empire.

He contended that the "vital interests" of the Empire in Europe lay in the security of the land frontiers of the Low Countries, since their possession by a hostile power would increase to a serious extent the danger of air bombardment of the British Isles.

He stressed the importance of the many bases on our line of communication with the Far East, and pointed out the importance of maintaining the integrity and independence of Afghanistan as a factor in the defence of India.

Vimy Anniversary

LORD BESSBOROUGH was the Institute's guest at the Vimy anniversary dinner on the evening of April 11, 1935, it being His Excellency's last appearance with us as Governor-General of Canada. For that reason the dinner had been postponed two nights. Among the guests also was the Right Reverend G. A. Wells, C.M.G., V.D., D.D., M.A., who spoke on "Bonds of Empire".

"We are here tonight," said the President, Major J. W. Littleton, M.C., "to celebrate the eighteenth anniversary of the capture of the Vimy Ridge on 9th April, 1917, by the Canadian Corps under the leadership of Lieut.-General Sir Julian Byng, who, when raised to the peerage at the end of the Great War, perpetuated the memory of that battle by taking the title of Baron Byng of Vimy

"It is right that we should annually commemorate this great achievement of the Canadian Corps but we must never forget the terrible price at which this victory and the whole war was won and I ask you to rise and drink a silent toast to the memory of those men who paid that price and those who have since passed on."

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"This is the first Vimy dinner", Major Littleton resumed, "held under the auspices of The Alberta Military Institute at which we have been honoured by the presence of the personal representative of His Most Gracious Majesty, King George V, and I think it is a happy thing that this should have occurred in this year 1935 when the whole British nation is preparing to celebrate the twenty-fifth anniversary of His Majesty's accession to the throne and I am going to ask Your Excellency to convey to His Majesty our most loyal and humble duty.

"We are very proud that His Excellency has honoured us with his presence here tonight while he is in Calgary on his 'farewell' tour of the Dominion as we also had the privilege of entertaining him at dinner on the occasion of his initial visit.

"Your Excellency, may I on behalf of The Alberta Military Institute assure you of our deep appreciation of this signal honour and express to you our thanks for your presence here tonight."

The President then proposed the toast to the Governor-General, His Excellency replying as follows:

"I am very glad indeed to be able to be present at your Vimy dinner. I thank you for your courtesy in having varied the date, and thus enabled me to be with you.

"I welcome the opportunity, first of all, to pay a humble tribute to the magnificent feat of arms which you commemorate tonight.

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Having spent some months in the early part of 1916 on the Vimy front, I know the ground where the valour of the Canadian troops made the name of Vimy famous all over the world, and memorable for all time.

"It is impossible to reflect upon the great events of war, in which the men of Canada in arms played so glorious a part, without paying homage to the memory of those who never returned, and without saluting, with respect, those who survived the ordeal of battle, and are honoured citizens of Canada today, whether still wearing the King's uniform or helping towards the progress of this nation in time of peace.

"How many Canadians, who helped to make the Canadian Corps famous in time of war, have since served the Dominion in the time of peace with honour and distinction? It was in civil life only that I knew your Commander, Sir Arthur Currie. This is the first opportunity that I have had since his death of paying tribute to the memory of that great servant of Canada and the Empire, and of deploring the loss of one who in war and peace devoted himself completely to the service of his country. He already occupied a position of great responsibility when Canadians successfully carried out an operation the difficulty of which is known to all.

"But as we have all learnt since, peace can provide problems as difficult, perhaps even more difficult of solution. It is a comforting thought that so many who fought in the war are scattered over Canada today, whose cool heads and brave hearts are at the service of their country, to help in solving the baffling problems and in rounding the difficult corners which have appeared in recent years.

"Whether in or out of the Militia, the men who served in 1914-1918 are all, and some of them, alas, under trying conditions, showing the same patriotism, endurance, and fortitude that is to be expected of those who so gallantly served the King in the time of the Empire's trial. I pray that they may live to see a prosperous and happy Canada once more.

"Great as is the honour of being on His Majesty's service as Governor-General of Canada, it is an especially proud thought that that

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office makes the holder Commander-in-Chief of His Majesty's Forces in the Dominion.

"When I dined with you in 1932, I was able to speak of my first visits to the Royal Military College at Kingston, and the Artillery training camp at Petawawa. I have had several opportunities of repeating these visits since, and they have always been to me notable days in the year.

"Looking to the future and thinking of the problems which the young men of Canada will have to grapple with and overcome, it is a matter for encouragement and hope that, as I said here on my last visit, 'nowhere in the world is there a finer military institution than the Royal Military College, nor indeed any institution, military or civil, that makes a more valuable contribution to national life.' During the time I have been here in Canada, I have been able to study the Cadets of the Royal Military College on frequent occasions at close quarters, and can repeat the opinion which I formed then, based upon some experience and knowledge gained since, of the young men and of their training.

"May I say as a final word, for I do not wish to interrupt the proceedings of this evening at any length, that looking back upon my time as Governor-General, now I regret to say, drawing to a close, there have been no personal associations that I have formed in Canada that have given me more real pleasure than the associations I have formed with those who serve the King in the Forces of the Crown."

* * * * *

Introducing the Bishop of Cariboo the President said:

"It has always been the custom at our annual Vimy dinner for the directors to arrange for an address on some appropriate subject and this year, bearing in mind that we are about to celebrate His Majesty's Silver Jubilee, your directors thought that the most suitable subject would be "The Empire" and they have been most fortunate in obtaining the consent of the Right Reverend Dr. G. A. Wells, Bishop of Cariboo, to deliver this address.

"Those who have had the privilege of hearing Dr. Wells speak on this subject have assured me that we have a treat in store.

"Before asking Dr. Wells to speak to you there are one of two things that I wish to tell you. Dr. Wells was born in Newfoundland of parents connected with both the Navy and the Army and at the age of seventeen he was the first mate of a sailing ship. He came to Canada in 1898, joined the 2nd Garrison Artillery and rose to the rank of sergeant and gun commander. He was one of the bodyguard to His Majesty the King when he visited Quebec as Duke of Cornwall and York in 1901.

"He served in the South African campaign with the 2nd C.M.R. in 1901 and 1902 with the rank of corporal.

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"In 1912 he was one of the original officers of the Fort Garry Horse and on the outbreak of war in 1914 offered his services as chaplain. In 1915 he was the first Canadian chaplain to be sent to France. He was awarded the C.M.G.

"Since then he has held many important posts in the Church of England in Canada and in 1934 was consecrated Bishop of Cariboo.

"Finally he is entitled to wear the Volunteer Decoration, a distinction, I imagine, enjoyed by very few Bishops.

"Your Excellency and gentlemen, it is my very great privilege and pleasure to introduce to you the Right Reverend Dr. G. A. Wells, Bishop of Cariboo, who will now address you on 'Bonds of Empire.'

* * * * *

Great, said the Bishop of Cariboo, as he found the pleasure at any time of meeting members of The Alberta Military Institute, he esteemed it as a special privilege to be present at the Vimy anniversary dinner and a special honour to have the opportunity of saying farewell to His Excellency, Lord Bessborough, His Majesty's representative in Canada.

The British Empire he spoke of as "a modern miracle", the "pink part" of the map of the world that represents a group of nations held together in what some people prefer to call a Commonwealth. "I don't like the word", he added, "I am an Imperialist and I prefer the word 'Empire' within which is found the greatest measure of stability in the world today."

The unselfish service of the Empire's leaders had much to do with its greatness, he believed, pausing to remark on the Empire's share in control as shown by appointments to leading positions of influence. He recalled that in the days of the war the British Prime Minister was a Welshman, the Naval commander an Irishman, the Army commander a Scotsman, the leader in the House of Commons a Canadian and the Chief Justice a Jew.

It is true too in these days of peace, he continued, for we see Mr. Ramsay MacDonald in the office of Prime Minister and Mr. Baldwin guiding the ship of state—a most remarkable phenomenon of the unselfish service that has made England great.

But in a world of change and unrest there are bound to be influences at work whose aim and purpose is to break up the present relationship of the nations within the Empire. Some there are, in positions where their voices can be heard, who talk of Canada acting on her own if the Empire were at war.

That is not the voice of Canada. Before politicians could set the voting machine to work Canadians of British stock would be on board ship, sailing for England to serve. (Prolonged applause). For we are one. We do not want to be dependent upon the Monroe

doctrine and a poor relation of the United States. As a part of the Empire we hold a proud position; separate, we are insignificant.

That position carries with it responsibilities. As a self-respecting people we must carry our full share of the burden of greatness which God has placed upon our race. We share her honours in days of peace. We ought to suffer with her in times of war. But great as the influences are which tend to separate us, greater still are the bonds which keep us together. I put them in this order—Sentimental, Practical, Psychological, one King one Flag; Practical, a common language, representation in national affairs, Psychological, national institutions and a national consciousness.

These are worthy of consideration and should be fostered by every loyal son of Canada. Let us deal briefly with each:

Sentimental—the King. The monarchy is only a sentiment but sentiment is the greatest power in life. The place of the King in the hearts of his people today is the most remarkable phenomenon in modern history. Consider the rousing welcome the present King was given by Canadians in 1901 when he visited our country as the representative of his illustrious father, Edward VII; the anxiety of his people the Empire over when he lay ill a few years ago; the enthusiastic anticipation of his Jubilee next month and the warmth with which we have welcomed from time to time his son, the Prince of Wales. The King is the great bond of the Empire, constant amid change. Long may he reign.

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Another sentiment is the flag. Did you ever see the flag in a foreign land? Have you ever felt stirred by the sound of martial music? Have you ever been thrilled by the sight of marching men? All sentiment—but what a power is in it! There has been much discussion of a national flag for Canada. If we are to have one, I hope we will keep the Union Jack in it. That stands for all the best in our national life—the Cross and the Blood. The St. George's Cross on a field of green, the green of Spring symbolizing our youth; in the lower fly a maple leaf of autumn tint; in the upper left, a Union Jack. But let there be no flag without the Union Jack. Let us never part with that.

Among more practical things we have our common language. The place and power of the English tongue as a bond of Empire cannot be over-estimated. It is a world language and English literature is saturated with the spirit that has made England great. Shakespeare, Milton, Woodsworth, Dickens, Tennyson, Scott, all breathe the spirit of England in its noblest and its best. It keeps alive the culture and tradition of the past and links us together as a people.

Representation in national affairs has been fully provided for in the most liberal manner. Canadians have been given every consideration in every field in which they are fitted to serve. That is good policy and a strong bond

What I have called psychological factors include our national institutions, common laws, civic administration, the administration of justice, parliamentary procedure and "the English home." The value of these cannot be over-estimated. Let us cherish them. And the national Church—only those who are in touch with the isolated members of our nation can fully appreciate what the Church means as a Bond of Empire. There is none more loyal to the best in our national life than those who are most loyal to the Church. Religion and patriotism go hand in hand.

The sum of it all is this: To create and develop a national consciousness which will preserve the best of the heritage of the British peoples here in this new land of Canada to be used in the best interests of the people of the world. The problem in Canada is great. We have confusion of tongues, clashing of ideals, conflicts of loyalties; restless remnants from all the world are here. The task is gigantic—but the opportunity is great. We can make our greatest contribution by holding our place in the Empire and by strengthening the bonds that unite us in unswerving loyalty to King and flag and tongue.

* * * * *

During the evening the President read regrets of their inability to be present of His Honour the Lieutenant-Governor, Chief Justice Harvey (Administrator of the Province of Alberta), the Right Honourable Prime Minister, the Right Reverend Dr. L. Ralph Sherman

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(Bishop of Calgary), the Premier of Alberta, (Mr. Reid), the Minister of National Defence, (Mr Grote Stirling), the Deputy Minister of National Defence (Lieut.-Col. L. R. La Fleche), the Chief of the General Staff, (Major-General A. G. L. MacNaughton), Mr. Justice Tweedie, His Honour Judge W. A. Macdonald, Major-General Sir James H. MacBrien, (Commissioner, R. C. Mounted Police), Mr. John Irwin, M.L.A., Dr. R. C. Wallace (President of the University of Alberta), and others.

Dr. J. S. McEachern proposed the toast to His Majesty's Forces, to which Brigadier D. W. B. Spry, District Officer Commanding M.D. 13, replied.

A programme of music was contributed by Mr. W.H.A. Thompson, Captain W. W. Edwards, Lieut. E. W. Lasher and (by permission of Lieut.-Col. P. R. Shields, M.C.), the band of the 13th Divisional C.A.S.C.



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The C.O.T.C., University of Alberta

By Lieut.-Col. E. H. Strickland, Commanding Officer

THE University of Alberta Contingent of the C.O.T.C. occupies a unique position in the Province of Alberta. It fills a dual role. Through it active Militia units can obtain well-trained officers while, in addition, it is the only institution, outside of Militia units, in which a large number of young men are given an opportunity to appreciate the responsibilities with which all officers must be able to cope in time of war.

It has been claimed by some people who are not very familiar with the type of training that is offered that, with the limited time and facilities which are available, the training which is offered must, of necessity, be so elementary that it is of no practical value. It is true that the amount of time which is devoted to "soldiering" along the lines of squad-drill and similar drill-hall exercises is reduced to a minimum. On the other hand, every cadet who has obtained his War Office certificate has a sound knowledge of tactics. It is felt that the value of this knowledge is far greater than would be a merely mechanical perfection in drill-hall technique which, surely, can wait until such time as it is actually needed.

It is also claimed that too few of the cadets, when they leave the University, obtain commissions in the Active Militia. In this connection it must be remembered that University students, as a class, are very uncertain as to where their permanent residence will be a few years after graduation. This causes them to hesitate before immediately joining a local unit. Although our records are very incomplete, we know that past cadets from the University of Alberta hold commissions in units all the way from Quebec to Victoria. In the Edmonton units over 50 per cent. of the junior officers are ex-cadets of the University C.O.T.C. The percentage is, admittedly, much lower in the Calgary units. The only logical conclusion that one can draw from this is that the Officers Commanding Calgary units have not been in so favourable a position to judge of the value of cadets to their units as have those who command units in Edmonton.

In any event we would strongly refute the suggestion that the training which is expended on cadets who do not subsequently obtain commissions in Militia units has been in any way wasted

* * * * *

CANADIANS are strongly opposed to warfare as a means of settling international disputes. We cannot, however, afford to close our eyes to the fact that, in many nations on this earth which we all share, the entire youth is regimented into potential aggressive armies. Just what they propose to do with them none of us can say. All we know is that these armies are realities and

that, as such, we must face the possible menace of their existence. They have, already, in comparatively recent years, forced many of us to take up arms against our will. Improbable as it may now seem, they may again challenge peace-loving nations to decide whether they will submit to the dictum that "might is right".

Canada possesses no such army and she certainly has no desire for one but, if a call to arms comes under conditions in which the manhood of Canada, as individuals, feel that they cannot honourably refuse, we need not doubt their answer. In this event have we more reason to doubt that there will be a mad scramble of the fit and of the unfit for commissions, even as there was twenty years ago? At that time all kinds and conditions of men, who had never given a moment's previous thought to the responsibilities which applying for a commission implied, attended brief courses of six weeks' duration and emerged as full-fledged officers into whose keeping was intrusted the safeguarding of the lives of their fellow men. On the other hand, hundreds of men, who would have had every qualification to serve as officers if they had received any previous training, joined up in the ranks. The lives of everyone were accepted but, at a time when the nation needed the best of everyone, the abilities of many were wasted. Surely we should miss no opportunity to prevent a recurrence of this tragic waste. Obviously, it will be too late if we wait until an emergency is once more upon us.

* * * * *

HOW, THEN, in peace-time can National Defence Headquarters discover the potential value, as officers, of as many men as is possible? How, in addition, can these men be given an initial training on which they could build in time of need? How can they be given an inkling of what would be their responsibility towards their fellow men should they apply for, and obtain, commissions in time of war? The answer seems to be, "Only by taking advantage of the fact that many young men, while they are attending one or other of our Canadian universities, can there be induced to take the necessary course of training and of examination." Were a similar course of intensive training, with no promise of a commission at its

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termination, offered elsewhere in Alberta, how great a response would you anticipate? It was for this reason that the University Contingents of the C.O.T.C. were established in Canada.

In our own University the Contingent was gazetted in 1915. During the remaining years of the war 484 officers, N.C.O.'s and men left it for active service

At the termination of the war, its original Commanding Officer, Lt.-Col. H. J. Macleod, resumed his command of the unit. He successfully piloted it through the difficult years of transition from war to peace. Enrolment steadily increased as did the number of cadets who, annually, fulfilled the requirements of the War Office for their certificates. Expansion continued subsequently during the years in which the unit was under the command of Lt.-Col. F. A. S. Dunn up till 1932, when 91 cadets obtained their War Office certificates. This was the largest number to do so in any university in the British Empire. During the next two years several modifications in the University regulations regarding requirements in connection with physical training and in the conditions of service in the C.O.T.C. tended to reduce enrolment. Despite this, last year approximately twice as many U of A cadets obtained War Office certificates as from any other university in Canada.

This assuredly is a record of which to be proud. Only when a cadet has satisfied Staff Officers of the Canadian permanent force that he is efficient in his practical work and examiners at the War Office in England that his training has brought him up to the requisite standard for British officers in handling tactical problems does he receive his certificate.

Many cadets not only qualify for the rank of lieutenant in this manner but remain in the unit and take the necessary training and examinations which qualify them for the rank of captain. From among these are selected the junior officers of the unit itself, in which none can attain to a higher rank than lieutenant, whatever may be his qualifications.

* * * * *

THE UNIT, of course, wishes to see its most promising members obtain commissions in Militia units upon graduation from the University. On the other hand, the training has been by no means wasted on those who do not do so. A record is kept at National Defence Headquarters of all cadets who have presented themselves for examination. Year by year this record includes a steadily increasing number of men whose ability to serve as officers has been appraised. Those who have proved, for any reason, to be unsuited to hold commissions are on record as such, as well as are those who have proved their undoubted ability.

Many people who are opposed to military training in any form claim that such training as is offered at the University is keeping a "war spirit" alive. If it could be shown that C.O.T.C. cadets, as a class, show a greater desire for war than does any other similar

group of young men in Alberta, I suppose we should have to admit that the lurking menace is there. So far as I am concerned, I have never observed it. Anyone who knows anything about the subject will agree that the more one learns about the machinery of modern warfare the less can anyone see anything glorious or heroic about it. Military training such as is given in the C. O. T. C. no more arouses a desire for war than does fire-drill arouse a desire for arson. Both war and fire can be effectively overcome by a knowledge of the materials and of the methods which must be employed for their suppression.

* * * * *

WE CAN rest assured that the youth of Canada will never be asked to offer their services in any cause other than one which the people of Canada, as a whole, believe to be just, since only the people of Canada can ask them to do so. In this event, the question as to whether those who assume the responsibilities of serving as officers have received any previous training will have little effect on their decision or on that of their fellow men whom they may be called upon to lead. Could we then ask for less than that National Defence Headquarters has as long a list as is possible of civilians, in addition to those who are already serving as officers in Militia units, who have already shown themselves to be capable of employing sound judgment in military matters and who have already had some training to fit them for their responsibilities.

Surely no one can be so blindly optimistic that he can believe warfare between any of the different nations on earth to be definitely a thing of the past. Canadians are determined, if it be in any way honourably possible, to avoid becoming embroiled in any wars which may occur in the future. God grant that they may be able to do so. By no stretch of the imagination can such training as is given in the C.O.T.C. imperil this ideal. As a nation, the people of the United States were determined that they would not be drawn into the last great European war. Did this in any way save the mothers of America the agony of seeing their sons go when, at length, the call came? Can Canada be assured of any greater immunity in the future? Rest assured that, if a call to arms should come, under conditions in which the majority of our Canadian youth feel that they cannot honourably refuse, they will go. Previous training, or the lack of it, will have no effect on their decision.

If, at the time, the men who are selected as officers prove unequal to their task because they were denied the opportunity to obtain any training in peace time, at whose door would you place the responsibility for the lives which are unnecessarily sacrificed?

Neighborly Sympathy

An Address delivered to the United States on the Philco Radio Time over
the Columbia Broadcasting System by Boake Carter upon the
Death of H.M. King George V.

A WINTRY SUN cast its rays through tall windows, the curtains of which had been pulled aside. And at the noonday hour, the beams slowly etched a pathway, across the red, red carpet until they fingered the coverlet draped across a giant, magnificently carved four poster bed.

Inch by inch the rays of the January sun rose up the side and presently bathed the bed in light—to reveal the grey face of a bearded man.

In the sun's reflection, silent watchers in the shadows watched the rise and fall of the covers, as the sick man's breathing came rasping, heavy and with great effort.

Gradually as the afternoon hours passed, the sunbeams—like the Eternity to which we all eventually return, moved relentlessly on. And as they moved, their rays slowly dimmed—and the shadows, routed to the deep corners of the room a few short hours before, gradually crept forward again. And the sun hid its face behind the tall trees and the warmth of nature slowly faded. It was as though Nature herself was writing in her own epic way for the little group of watchers hidden in the shadows, the final earthly chapter of a good and kindly man—George Frederick Ernest Albert—by the Grace of God, King of Great Britain, Ireland, and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Defender of the Faith and Emperor of India—and now by the Grace of God, returned to his Maker after a life's task well done.

Fully a quarter of the habitable world grimly realized that once more in the long, great, glorious history of the British Empire, the time was at hand when it heard again those fateful words: "The King is dead—long live the King." Reluctantly and with grief they were heard as life flickered from the tired frame of King George of England, at 6:59 Eastern Standard Time—midnight in London.

But a scant two hours earlier the physicians and specialists attending the King had issued another bulletin, the words of which conveyed the hint that hope was abandoned—and that the end was but a matter of time. "The King's life is moving peacefully toward its close," was the fateful message typed upon the bulletin. It was a message pregnant with meaning for the future and poignant for the memories that they conjured to the mind of yesteryears.

By kind permission of the author.

Screens stood about the King's bed, to ward off any vestige of draught. A log fire dozed lazily red and comforting in the grate. At hand were the King's four sons, his daughter. About the sick room in the great sprawling house at Sandringham, tiptoed Queen Mary—her hair perhaps a little whiter, her eyes perhaps a little duller with the realization that the quiet, sympathetic and generous man that had been her husband these many years, and who with her had stood the tests of a swiftly changing world, was gradually slipping from her. And the Queen became a woman and wept.

Three times since the world war, Great Britain's King fell seriously ill: in 1925, in 1928 and now. From the purely medical aspect, London medical men observed today that the King's illness of 1928 was more serious, in itself, as an illness, than the present one. But the 1928 illness sapped the monarch's strength and the heavy bronchial cold he caught a few days ago, riding round the grounds of Sandringham, taxed to the extreme his weakened heart.

In 1928, King George was seven years younger. Today he was seven years older—and possessed not the stamina with which to fight approaching death. Oxygen was administered—and heart stimulants injected—but "The King's life moved peacefully toward its close!" It must be taken that the catarrhal infection spread to the lungs—a direction in which there was no hope. The last hours of life—the quiet slipping into eternity—were typical of the very life of Britain's 54th King. For he was always a shy man, yet withal, a man of great dignity, who carried through a duty, no matter how distasteful or repugnant it might be to his soul.

In color of character, he was the antithesis of many English Kings. Yet it was this very lack of color, absence of the dash and hail-fellow-well-met camaraderie of his father, Edward—that in the end became one of the most valuable attributes to Britain's present ruling house. For it imparted to George V some sense of quiet, hidden strength, a gentle, unobtrusive, but very genuine dignity, which symbolized so well the England that every Englishman carries in his heart to all the ends of the earth.

It was perhaps more this than almost anything else which enabled the English ruling house to carry straight on, in its quiet, silent way, through some of the most turbulent times in the history of mankind when the western world began changing into the modernity of the 20th century.

George grew to manhood and Kingship in the days of Britain's great imperial expansion—the days that lit the poetic mind of Kipling—the days of his grandmother, Victoria, for whom an era was named. Thus he grew up in a time which we of today look upon as history of the past. Yet his reign was marked by a new tempo of human affairs—a tempo which produced a new civilization, in which the scientists and engineers of mankind produced great marvels and in which occurred, too, the most horrible war of all ages.

To these changing times, George, in his quiet way, adapted himself with uncanny ability—and so won for himself the undying devotion of the people of a quarter of the world—and the respect and admiration of the remaining three-quarters.

In the days of his youth, George was known to his brothers and sisters as "Georgie." Never was he over-strong—not one of those ruddy-faced, virile Englishmen of fiction who stride with stick and gaiters past gorse and heather, over heath and moor, puffing a briar and whistling gay ditties. Nevertheless from ancestors he inherited a love of the sea—and to the beckoning fingers of Neptune he succumbed—going through Osborne and Dartmouth, the then two naval colleges of Britain, passing eventually on into the Royal Navy, in which he served for 15 years and which took him many times round the world. Nary a thought of worriment entered his mind. He was enjoying only the life of a sailor and an officer in His Majesty's Navy. He was, after all, the second son of his father. His elder brother, Albert, Duke of Clarence, was next in line for the throne. Clarence was engaged to Princess Mary, daughter of the Duke and Duchess of Teck. Victoria was still upon the throne. Hardly a chance in the world then seemed likely that George would be called upon to ascend the throne of his great grandmother.

Then suddenly, in the twinkling of an eye, Fate, capricious and untrustworthy, changed all. Just as George in this January of 1936 caught a cold and died, so did his brother Clarence suddenly catch cold in January, 1892, 44 years ago, and was dead within a week.

Changed instantly was George's whole life. He had to give up his beloved sea and salt spray and plunge into the life of studying to be some day the future King of England. Biographers and historical papers reveal how, inwardly, George revolted against this—but outwardly resigned himself and carried on in the true traditions that only Englishmen understand. Victoria passed away from the picture in 1901, and his father, Edward, was crowned. Princess Mary, who had been engaged to Clarence, married George. Finally in 1910,

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Edward passed on and George came to rule over countless millions of black, white and brown people inhabiting an empire on which "the sun never sets".

Here came the test of the world war—a cruel test to put to this shy man, who never wanted to be King in the first place, but only to sail the seven seas and be free in spirit as well as in body. But not one second did he flinch from the test.

It is a matter of easy memory for tens of thousands of troops, how he conducted himself—and within the memory of civilians of all lands, how he endeavored to set an example of himself and his entire household. He became a soldier first and secondly a King. Fifteen hours a day he was "on tap"—to commanding officers, to wounded men in hospitals, to ministers, to all. He visited the "lines in France," ducked in and out dugouts, drove brass-hatted generals frantic with worry, and once was thrown from a startled horse and badly injured by the flying hoofs of the wildly kicking animal.

Eventually came the Peace of Armistice Day—and from that date, George set about the long, often heart-breaking task of clearing away the carnage and the wreckage of human lives, human values and economic destruction.

A million British subjects had offered up their lives in the supreme sacrifice, and it was to correct this decimation to which King George applied himself day and night

The war destroyed many ruling houses of Europe. One after another, royal dynasties crashed, but the House of Windsor remained untouched—for the uncanny ability of George to adapt himself to the changing times, to use indeed the very birth itself of this new era to weld his empire on more modern lines, was the salvation of the Windsor dynasty. Thus perhaps it is the hand of a cruel, unkindly Fate that should ring down the curtain on the life of one of England's ablest Kings at the very time when his Empire faces, again, troubles rising on all sides, and at a time when it needs his quiet genius once more to pilot it over the shoals and reefs of international Today.

The world wonders whether the departure of this man will spell a change of mark in the fortunes of Britain and her far-flung possessions. We venture the opinion that it will—for Edward Albert Patrick David, Prince of Wales—now Edward VIII, is vastly different to his father.

For with the passing of King George goes a great link, a great bond, between the present-day Britain and the Britain that was of the Victorian era.

It will be, psychologically, like the closing of a good book, whose pages have left a glow of warmth and solidity, and turning to look upon the shelves of Life for another book. England will pick another

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book for herself—but though its cover may be attractive and its contents may seem alluring—the time consumed between the closing of one book and the finding, opening and reading sufficiently to test its quality, of the other book, that will be the period of danger to Britain.

Edward Albert Patrick David, Prince of Wales, is a product of the post-war school, although his boyhood days were spent among the pre-war generation. The most impressionable years of his life came during the war, when men shot men, and life had little value—and the Moment was lived only for what one could extract from the Moment.

After the war, the dreariness and disillusionment of social and economic wreckage left their mark upon the mind of the Prince.

Too, he has been one of the greatest salesmen Britain has ever had—taut, energetic, a bundle of nerves, often no respecter of traditions which his father George would never have thought of transgressing. Edward David Windsor is indeed a product of the modern school—a new type of royalty—and his ascension to the throne will bring this product of this new school to deal with the intricate hair-trigger problems which engulf the world today.

Perhaps it may mean that the royal house of Britain will take even a more personal interest in internal and external politics than ever. For many times the Prince has spoken his mind about governmental matters. Only Time will tell whether he follows the traditional course or draws the royal House of Windsor closer to politics and international diplomacy.

With the death of George, a psychological Something goes in Britain—a Something utterly undescrivable—but a Something just the same. Something has departed from the heart that is England's. What effect this will have on the fortunes of the Empire and on the lives of the millions of people that populate it, remains a great question mark of the future.

Not so long ago, when the Prince of Wales bid his sister-in-law, the Duchess of York, good-bye at a London railroad station—he murmured loud enough for others to hear—"Good-bye—good-bye to the future Queen of England!"

The story is not new—but fresh enough to bear repetition at this time of travail for a great nation. Whether he meant that he himself would never ascend the throne—and permit his brother, the Duke of York to take it, or whether he meant that some day she and his brother might outlive him to become the rulers of the Empire is, of course, pure conjecture.

Few, however, expect that for a minute the Prince will shirk the responsibilities that now fall on his sloping shoulders. He is too much a man, too honest, understands too well what is expected of

him; and even though he too, like his father, doesn't want the position, he realizes that he is but another pawn of circumstances and of history—and must bow his head to at least some of the demands of tradition.

If, as and when he is crowned, he will be the first bachelor King of England since 1760. A bachelor may reign in Great Britain—but there is much legal doubt as to whether he may be crowned without marrying first. There have been four bachelor Kings in all English history, two of them but boys.

The last one, strange as it seems, was George III, in whose reign the American colonies gained their independence. But at that time the legal advisers to the Crown and the government decided that he could not be actually crowned until he married. And so George III took Charlotte Sophia, princess of Mecklenburg-Strelitz for his wife. And after that, and only after that event, was George III crowned.

Thus one wonders whether the death of Edward Patrick David Windsor's father tonight will force him into marriage—and remove from the ranks of bachelors one of the most eligible in the world.

So as the sun slowly sets over the palace in Britain today, so did life slowly ebb from a great, good, dignified King—and his going leaves behind a mourning empire—a very much saddened world which always doffs its hat in reverence to a good and able man—and a great Question Mark for the future.

The King is Dead.

LONG LIVE THE KING.

Good night.

* * * * *

Edward VIII.

IT IS DEFINITELY THAT TONIGHT.

Before a slight figure, looking almost forlorn in the sombre black of a morning suit—members of Great Britain's Privy Council met in St. James' Palace and not only proclaimed Edward the new ruler of more than 350 million people, but swore undying fealty to him as their King—a ceremony honored by tradition and stretching far back into the dim ages of Britain's glorious past.

Later, again according to tradition, Parliament met and many a person who witnessed the moving scene in the House of Commons will remember it to their dying day.

This same slight figure, the conservative morning suit now gone, and in its place the brilliant blue and gold tunic of a full admiral of the Royal Navy, looked down as members of the Commons—the representatives chosen by the people—irrespective of their political faith or following, swore to follow their new King. Throughout the ceremony, all marked the lines of fatigue and grief that had etched themselves deep in the face of the 41-year-old King. But if any wondered whether or not Edward would shatter any royal precedents, their curiosity was soon satisfied. Three things did he do which may be a clue to the forthcoming manner in which he will discharge his new duties.

First—he flew to London from Norfolk in a plane—the first British King ever to fly.

Second—he ordered that all clocks at Sandringham, the summer home of the Windsors, be set at correct time. Every clock had been allowed to run 30 minutes fast for 25 years and more by King George, as a memorial to his father, Edward VII, who originally set the clocks ahead because he was late once for an appointment and it vexed him.

Third—Edward VIII disdained police protection by failing to tell the Metropolitan police by which door he would enter St. James' Palace—and thus had the unfortunate police at their wits' end guarding all door, at once.

Thus did the new King of England break three precedents—and perhaps from this one may gather that there will be not only a new note of modernism in the performance of kingly duties, but also a newer note of self-determination. After the ceremonies acclaiming him King were over—King Edward retired to York House, and then in the next day or two will return to the house of sorrow which stands on the cold, bleak expanses of Norfolk. And again today as dusk was falling, six stalwart foresters bore upon their shoulders from the house to the little parish church at which the royal family was accustomed to worship in happier days, a coffin.

It was of oak as sturdy as the dead King's character, and as plain as was he democratic in life. Thus the villagers of the county may be the first among Britons to pay their last homage to their departed

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King—for from thence the body must travel to London and lie in state—and finally, a week from today, George V, of the royal House of Windsor, will be laid to rest with his ancestors in Windsor Castle.

Meanwhile, the wide effect of King George's death may be gleaned when it is noted that right around the world some activity or another ceased; some work was spoken of sorrow; some bitterness or estrangement was forgotten.

Flags on all government buildings flap at half mast and Herr Hitler expressed profound grief; from Doorn, in Holland, came a cable of sympathy from one of the few great world war figures left in life today—the former Kaiser, and cousin of the departed English King.

The feeling of bitterness melts in Italy and is replaced with sympathetic understanding, as Mussolini despatches his condolences, and the Rome press praise the record of England's George. The French are stunned.

From Bombay came words of grief from the Agha Khan, whose horses raced thoroughbreds from the stables of the late King on many an English track, and from Mahatma Gandhi, who in his more virile days was the sharpest thorn of awakened Indian nationalism in the side of the British lion.

And in the far-flung remote corners of Britain's empire the sad-denning news caught many unawares—in South Africa's Cape Town the word was flashed at the dead of night. Over Singapore, a Royal Air Force plane flew with a long black streamer. In Australia the news arrived in the middle of the morning—and promptly public offices closed, and festivities of all nature were cancelled.

In Hong Kong, workmen going home bought papers bordered in black and they knew. As if by some silent, mysterious signal cafes, dances and entertainment for officers and men of the Royal Navy stationed at Gibraltar, ceased. Every ship of Britain's vast fleet fired 70-gun salutes—one salute for each year of the dead King's life. To the royal palace at Oslo, Norway, came the news early in the morning. In Tokio, the Emperor of Japan ordered his court to observe three weeks' official mourning. Canadians were shocked speechless with a sense of personal loss; Washington was saddened and plans for a special ambassador to represent President Roosevelt at the state funeral were begun; the House adjourned as a mark of respect.

Colors are draped—only funeral marches and the national anthem may be played—and black arm bands adorn the sleeves today of all British army officers. Thus, right round the world the effect it felt and the expressions of sorrow and loss know no color, race nor creed—Mohammedans, Hindus, Buddhists, Chinese, Jews, Catholics. Christians—one and all paid homage and plan memorial services. It is perhaps an amazing tribute of affection for—first a man and sec-

only the symbol of solidity of which he was the outward visible representative. Already today, historians and biographers are at odds as to whether George was merely a good sovereign or a great sovereign.

It is our guess that the passage of Time will rate him a very great constitutional monarch, because he established in probably what was the hardest of all transitional periods in the world's history, a model of what a constitutional monarch should be—a mark for the few others who remain to shoot at.

John Buchan, Governor General of Canada, has written that the duty of a constitutional monarch is not to "act" and when "to be." Few knew George intimately in Britain when he ascended the throne. He was rated as the possessor of a "blameless private life, modest, amiable, honest" and a strong sense of duty and—little more.

The passage of Time has proven how superficial was that judgment in that it looked only at the surface and not beneath. This "amiable and honest" man assumed his duties when Britain was torn with the struggle for power between the House of Lords and the House of Commons, the struggle over the Irish question and other matters. He threw his lot, within its constitutional limitations, with the House of Commons, threatened to create enough peers to carry through the Parliament Act—and the Lords, preferring to lose power rather than prestige, grumblingly gave in to this sudden revelation of steel in the character of the new King. The love George might have lost among the mighty landowners of Britain in 1911, was fully compensated by the greater love of the common masses of people less fortunately endowed with worldly goods.

Likewise, he brought the weight of his own personal beliefs into play in settling the Irish question before the war. The parts he played in the war—his creation after the war of the national government in 1931, and many other instances, all point to George's extraordinary ability of knowing when to "act" and when just to remain still and "be".

By his actions the British people believed he acted in their own interests and it was this affectionate regard of popular belief which lent such potency to those times when George did act and reminded politicians that it was a nation to be served and not party interests.

Walter Bagehot holds that King George possessed three great qualities: "sagacity, good sense and industry"—never breaking custom—reading every line of every state paper, having an intimate knowledge of every situation of importance and avoiding political errors.

It was his own democracy and the realization among his subjects that here was at least one politically impartial individual who spoke always in terms of national interest—that entrenched British royalty even more firmly in British minds.

And so if a constitutional monarch was intelligent enough to realize the **practical** value of royalty to a great mass of a modern population—quite apart from the superficial trappings—and at the same time never once upset the conduct of a democratic form of government, especially in this last quarter of a century of mad ups and downs—then surely he must indeed be rated a very wise and possibly very great monarch.

Had many other monarchs of the world taken time to copy his methods—many of them might still possess their crowns and be of some use today, instead of being lonely, luckless exiles.

As for Edward VIII, his qualities as Prince of Wales are too well known to bear repetition—but one royal biographer observes that the life he led as Prince of Wales may mislead many to think he will be a playboy King, when such is far from the case.

Observes the biographer: "King Edward is far too intelligent a patriot not to realize always that his capacity for doing good for his countrymen and fellowmen is infinitely greater than that of any of the comrades whose society he affects. Those who have had an opportunity to watch him closely would speak confidently of this man as one who knows his own mind—who has read widely if not too deeply; to whom character is often an open book; who can calculate keenly and forecast with no little accuracy; who is wholly freed from the gambler's spirit as he is imbued with the spirit of adventure, whose persistence on the path of what he believes right brings him sometimes close to obduracy." Such things were not written of King George when he came to the throne of a great empire. They are already written of his son, Edward. That he is likely to be very social minded, more so perhaps than almost any King in British history, is well within reason. As Prince of Wales he has gone among the miners, the farmers, and the laboring groups—and has many times let loose strong words, forced upon him by scenes of poverty, starvation and misery that met his sight on his inspection tours. Thus many feel that he is what may be loosely described as very much of a "liberal" in the sense that he is passionately desirous of doing something to lift up the general standard of English living and giving a break to the underdogs. And it is this characteristic that makes many say that Edward's reign will find England with a King definitely more socially minded than ever before.

Only Time can provide the answer to all conjectures

But the resetting of a household of clocks after 25 years—and flying to London to take over his duties—would seem to indicate King Edward as "one who knows his own mind."

Annual General Meeting

CALLED originally for 27th January, the Annual Meeting of the Alberta Military Institute was postponed until the evening of the 29th on account of the death of His Majesty the King, George V.

At 8.30 of that evening the meeting opened with the reading by the President, Major J. W. Littleton, M.C., of cables exchanged between the Institute and His Majesty's private secretary, as follows:

His Majesty the King,
Sandringham, England.

Members of the Alberta Military Institute respectfully extend to Your Majesty their humble duty and expressions of sympathy.

J. W. Littleton, Major.
President.

And the reply:

The King is touched by your kind message of sympathy and will be glad if you will express his sincere thanks to all who joined in it.

Private Secretary.

The Chaplain to the Institute, Hon. Capt. the Venerable Cyril Swanson, Archdeacon of Calgary, spoke briefly on His Late Majesty's death and two minutes of silence was observed. Lieut. E. W. Lasher sang, "The End of a Perfect Day."

The minutes of the last Annual Meeting, held 21st January, 1935, having been printed in the Annual Journal it was moved by Lieutenant-Colonel D. H. Tomlinson, M.B.E., V.D., and seconded by Hon. Captain the Venerable C. Swanson that these be accepted as read. Carried.

Applications for Membership.

Applications for membership from the following, duly recommended by the directors, were dealt with

Lieut. G. E. Napper—R. Berkshire Regt.—Resident.

Capt. A. E. White, M.C.—R.A.F.—Non-Resident.

Lieut. R. D. Sutherland, 15th C.L.H.—Non-Resident.

and on motion of Major H. Strachan, V.C., M.C., A.D.C., seconded by Capt. G. D. C. McEwen were adopted.

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Report of the President.

The president presented his report for 1935, as follows:—

Brigadier Spry and Gentlemen:

It is my privilege to present on behalf of the Directors the annual report of the Institute for the year 1935

Membership

I am very pleased to report that the membership has been well sustained and is at present composed as follows

Life members	5
Honorary members	3
Resident members	341
Non-resident members	157
Red Deer Branch	18

This number compares very favourably with past years, but I am of the impression that our membership can be considerably increased if the present members will use every endeavour to get those who are eligible for membership to join. During the year 46 have ceased their membership for various reasons and 33 new members have joined.

It is with the deepest regret that we have to report the death of:

Major B. F. Rhodes, M.C.
Major T. C. Bruce.
Captain E. E. Drysdale.
Lieut. H. L. O'Rourke.

Departures and Arrivals

Several changes have taken place amongst the headquarters and permanent force staffs necessitating the departure of Lieut.-Col J. C. Stewart, D.S.O., to London to assume command of Military District No. 1, Major F. M. Harvey, V.C., M.C., to Winnipeg, and Major J. D. Pitman, D.S.O., to Vancouver, the last two officers being past directors of the Institute. Lieut.-Col. C. W. Devey, L.S.H., a past director, returned to Calgary from Winnipeg and Lieut.-Col. C. V. Stockwell, D.S.O., has recently arrived to take over the duties of the A.A. and Q.M.G., Military District No. 13.

Meetings

Seventeen general meetings have been held during the year, at which we have been favoured with a series of most interesting addresses. I do not wish to stress any particular address, but I should like to pay tribute to our faithful friends, Major-General the Hon.

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W. A. Griesbach, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., V.D., and Magistrate H. G. Scott, both of whom have been so generous in the past and who recently delivered such interesting and informative addresses.

Silver Jubilee Celebrations

In celebration of His Majesty's Silver Jubilee, a special meeting was held in the Garrison Officers' Mess on 3rd May, following the inspection of the Cadet Corps, at which the Venerable Archdeacon C. Swanson delivered a most inspiring and patriotic address. A dance was also held in conjunction with the Garrison Officers' Mess on 6th May, the proceeds \$45.00, of which were forwarded as a donation to the King George V. Silver Jubilee Cancer Fund, to which fund the Institute also forwarded a special donation of \$25.

Sir James McBrien

On 9th July a complimentary luncheon was tendered to Major-General Sir James H. MacBrien, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., on which occasion he gave us a very clear insight into the various duties of the Royal Canadian Mounted Police. It will be remembered that, notwithstanding many attractions at the Calgary Exhibition and Stampede which was in progress at the time, the attendance anticipated was very largely exceeded.

Summer Meeting at Sarcee Camp

For some years past, through the courtesy of the Officer Commanding the Lord Strathcona's Horse (Royal Canadians) it has been our custom during the Militia Staff course to hold a lecture in their mess at Sarcee Camp, and this year, on 26th July, we were favoured with a most interesting and instructive address by Major G. H. A. MacMillan, M.C., of the Argyll and Sutherland Highlanders (Princess Louise's), who is seconded from his regiment to the staff of the Royal Military College, Kingston.

Rt. Hon. R. B. Bennett

Through the courtesy of the Canadian Club we were joint hosts at a luncheon at the Palliser Hotel on 18th September, to our distinguished member, the Right Honourable R. B. Bennett, P.C., K.C., LL.D., Prime Minister of Canada.

Fall Smoker

As an opening to our fall meetings, a most successful smoking concert was held on 20th September, and, in addition to the regular musical program, short addresses were delivered by the Rev. Father A. B. McDonald of this city, (Ethopia), Judge E. H. Maclean, of Picton, Ontario, Captain E. A. Baker, B.Sc., of Toronto, the managing

director of the Canadian National Institute for the Blind, and that padre so loved by all members of the Canadian Expeditionary Force, Ven. Archdeacon F. G. Scott, C.M.G., D.S.O., V.D.

Lt.-Col. J. C. Stewart, D.S.O.

In conjunction with the Garrison Officers' Mess, a farewell dinner was extended on 28th December to Lieut.-Col. J. C. Stewart, D.S.O., on his vacating the appointment of A.A. and Q.M.G., Military District 13, to assume the duties of District Officer Commanding Military District No. 1 at London, Ontario, at which time a welcome was also extended to his successor, Lieut.-Col. C. V. Stockwell, D.S.O., Royal Canadian Artillery.

Our organization was suitably represented at the arrival of His Excellency the Governor-General; the reception of Lieut General Lord Baden-Powell; the dedication of a memorial to the late Detective-Inspector Joseph Carruthers of the City police force; Decoration Day service at the Cenotaph; the funeral service for Sergeant T. S. Wallace, M.M., and Constable G. E. Harrison, Royal Canadian Mounted Police; Armistice Day service and parade to the Cenotaph, on which occasion a wreath was laid; The Canadian Legion's Armistice Smoking Concert; and the Canadian Legion's Christmas dinner to the ex-service men of Calgary.

Vimy Dinner

In order to synchronize with the arrival of His Excellency, the Governor-General of Canada, the annual Vimy Dinner was held this year on the 11th of April, on which occasion, through the courtesy of His Worship, Mayor A. Davison, and the City Council, we had the extreme honour of entertaining His Excellency. For this function the Right Reverend G. A. Wells, C.M.G., V.D., Lord Bishop of Cariboo, came specially from Kamloops for the purpose of addressing the meeting, and thrilled the largest attendance of the past few years (467) with an outstanding address entitled "Bonds of Empire".

Armistice Ball

In commemoration of the signing of the Armistice, the Annual Ball was held in the Palliser Hotel on 11th November, with an attendance of 463, which is an increase on 1934 and the largest since 1930. This attendance was most gratifying to your Directors. While a small profit accrued, it is felt that the price of the tickets for the last two years neither allows for an adequate supper nor ensures that a loss will not be entailed, and it is respectfully suggested that the incoming Directorate will be well advised to take this matter under very careful consideration when making their arrangements for the Armistice Ball in 1936.

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New Year's Day

The usual New Year's Day reception was held in conjunction with the Garrison Officers' Mess and was attended by large numbers including many prominent citizens.

Cadet Corps

Under the able instruction of Lieut. H. C. Neal, the Institute Cadet Corps has progressed most favourably. While a report on the Cadet Corps activities will be presented later by the Chairman of that Committee, Lieut. H. E. Wright, I wish to take this opportunity of expressing our gratitude to Brigadier D. W. B. Spry, O.B.E., V.D., for the presentation to the Corps of a silver cup for annual competition, as well as our thanks to Lieut. Neal, Major L. W. Miller, D.S.O., and the Instructors of the Permanent Force of Military District 13 for their continued interest in the Corps.

Library

Our thanks are again due to Captain W. P. Taylor for his continued and efficient handling of the library. During the year some new books have been added and a further order for books has recently been placed which it is anticipated will be available for the members in the near future. With a view to expanding our library to include all types of literature, the Institute would be very glad to accept any books that members may care to donate. A full report will be submitted later for your approval by the Honorary Librarian.

Annual Journal

In accordance with your instructions at the last general meeting, the Annual Journal for 1934 was published and forwarded to all members. Continued publication of this journal without undue expense to the Institute is dependent on the amount of advertising received, and it is sincerely trusted that members will patronize those firms who have so generously assisted us and to whom our very grateful thanks are due. Our thanks are also due to Major A. C. Ballantine, for again undertaking the task of editing the Journal.

Branches

The report of the Red Deer branch will be presented later this evening for your information. At their annual meeting in June this organization was represented by Major O. L. Leigh Spencer. Speakers have been provided when requested.

It is regretted that the Lethbridge branch has not functioned.

C.O.T.C. Scholarships

The \$75. authorized at the general meeting for scholarships for

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the University of Alberta C.O.T.C. was awarded as follows:

Class A, \$25. won by Cadet M. Young.

Class B, \$50. won by Corporal L. A. Quirk.

Your directors have the assurance of the University of Alberta that this grant is a great incentive, and recommend its continuance in 1936.

Garrison Officers' Mess

In the past the grant of a definite sum has been made annually to the Garrison Officers' Mess by the Institute. This year a new system was agreed upon whereby the Mess received \$2. from every \$5. and \$1. from every \$2.50 paid by resident members of the Institute. Through this arrangement the Garrison Officers' Mess received during the year the sum of \$546. as against \$400. last year, and this system has proved mutually satisfactory to both organizations. As heretofore, the Institute, in addition, paid the Garrison Officers' Mess \$20. for each meeting to cover the cost of refreshments served. It gives me great pleasure to express the Directors' appreciation of the courtesy and co-operation extended to your organization at all times by the President and members of the Garrison Officers' Mess committee.

MILITARY MEN

know that the Best Defense
is a Strong Offense.

Keep that in mind and you
will choose

Marathon Blue Gasoline

and

Red Indian Motor Oil

The two products which give
that Essential Reliability so
very desirable in all automot-
tive equipment.

**McCOLL FRONTENAC
PRODUCTS**

The

**Palace
Theatre**

CALGARY

has the name

"HOUSE OF HITS"

There's a Reason

PETE EGAN, Mgr.

Financial Statement

A copy of the annual financial statement has been forwarded to all members and will be reviewed later by the Treasurer, and I am therefore not going into any detail in this matter beyond drawing your attention to the healthy financial standing of our organization, which you will observe closes its year's operations with a surplus of \$191.76. The report of the auditor has been received and will be presented for your adoption

The Directors have carefully considered the question of grants for clerical assistance to the Secretary, clerical assistance to the Treasurer, the the Library, the Cadet Corps, Scholarships for the University of Alberta C.O.T.C. and an Honorarium to the editor of the Journal, and their recommendations in each case will be submitted to you later.

I should like to take this opportunity of thanking the Chaplain Ven. Archdeacon Swanson for his assistance on two occasions at least. He has given us most inspiring addresses on the shortest of notice.

The thanks of the Institute for his faithful and efficient work as Assistant Secretary are due to Sergeant F. A. Mercer.

Once more our very grateful thanks go to the Manager of the Palace Theatre, Mr. P. Egan, who is most kind in entertaining the Cadet Corps and invited your Directors to a preview of the picture. "The Lives of A Bengal Lancer", when it was found to be impossible to arrange a theatre night made special prices for men in uniform.

Gentlemen, after seven years' experience on your Directorate, I can safely say that during those years no President was better served and assisted by his fellow officers and Directors than I have been during this past year, and I should like to take this opportunity of publicly thanking them for their loyalty and co-operation. Did I wish to, I could make no comparisons; all have given me their full support; but I do wish to commend to you your Honorary Secretary, Major A. J. Davis, whose work in the arrangement of lectures, meticulous care in keeping his minutes and unfailing assistance and advice have been invaluable, and your Treasurer, Mr. S. L. Miller, on whom I certainly, and probably others before me, have heaped work which did not belong to his office. His cheerfulness and willingness to accept this extra work and his untiring interest in the Institute's affairs at all times is well known to you and has often been remarked on by non-members.

In conclusion, gentlemen, may I thank you for the great honour you did me in electing me your President for 1935. It will always be one of my proudest memories that I have been President of The Alberta Military Institute. Any success we have had this year has

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been due to your co-operation and that of your Directors, and I ask the continuance of that support for my successor.

Respectfully submitted,

(Signed) J. W. LITTLETON (Major),
President.

It was moved by Lt.-Col N. D. Dingle, seconded by Col. E. R. Knight, V.D., that the Report of the President be adopted and that a very hearty vote of thanks be tendered the President, Executive Officers and Directors for their able and successful stewardship on behalf of the Institute during 1935. Carried.

Report of Auditor

The report of the Auditor of the Institute, Lieut. F. J. Butler, certifying that all books, accounts, securities, etc., of the Institute had been examined and found to be correct, was read by the Secretary.

Moved by Lt.-Col. D. Ritchie, M.C., seconded by Major L. W. Miller, D.S.O., that the Report be adopted. Carried.

Annual Financial Statement

The Financial Statement for 1935 was presented by the Treasurer, Mr S. L. Miller. A copy of this statement was mailed to all members with notice of the Annual Meeting.

It was moved by Lt.-Col. C. W. Devey, seconded by Lieut. R. Jackson, that the report be adopted. Carried.

Report of Honorary Librarian

The report of the Honorary Librarian, Capt. W. P. Taylor, was read.

The Directors recommended that an appropriation not in excess of \$100 be authorized for library purposes for 1936.

Moved by Major H. Strachan, V.C., M.C., A.D.C., seconded by Lt.-Col. D. H. Tomlinson, M.B.E., V.D., that the report be adopted, that a sum not exceeding \$100 be authorized for library purposes for 1936, and that the thanks of the members be extended to Capt. Taylor for his painstaking work in this connection.

**Report of Cadet
Corps Committee**

The report of the Cadet Corps Committee for 1935 was presented by Lieut. H. E. Wright, Chairman of the Cadet Corps Committee.

The Directors recommended that the sum of \$250, as requested by the Committee, be voted for 1936, to be expended at the discretion of the Directors.

The report was adopted and the above sum authorized on a motion of Brig. D. W. B. Spry, O.B.E., V.D., seconded by Capt. A. Landale, and it was unanimously carried that a vote of thanks be made to the Cadet Corps Committee, to Major L. W. Miller, D.S.O., and to the Cadet Corps Instructor, Lieut. H. C. Neal, for their work in this connection.

Brigadier Spry also suggested that the members of the Institute show more personal interest in the Cadets by visiting on their parade nights and see the work that is being done.

**Clerical Assistance to
Secretary and Treasurer**

The Directors recommended that a sum not exceeding \$350, be authorized for clerical assistance to the Secretary and Treasurer for 1936, at the discretion of the incoming Directors.

Moved by Major L. W. Miller, D.S.O., seconded by Col. D. G. L. Cunningham, M.C., V.D., that this sum be authorized.

**Annual Journal
for 1936**

The Directors recommended that the publication of the Annual Journal be continued for 1936.

It was moved by Major H. Strachan, V.C., M.C., seconded by Col. E. R. Knight, V.D., that the Annual Journal for 1936 be published.

A vote of thanks was extended to Major A. C. Ballantine for the excellent manner in which last year's Journal was edited.

**Vimy
Dinner**

The Directors recommended that the Vimy Dinner be held on Thursday, April 9th, 1936, if considered fitting in view of Court mourning.

This was approved on motion made by Lt.-Col. D. Ritchie, M.C., seconded by Lieut. H. C. Farthing.

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Armistice Ball

The Directors recommended that the Annual Ball in Commemoration of the Armistice be held on Wednesday, November 11th, 1936, and Directors be instructed to consider the recommendations contained in the President's report.

Moved by Col. D. G. L. Cunnington, M.C. V.D., seconded by Major G. E. R. Smith, and carried, that this date be approved.

Use of Garrison Officers' Mess

The Directors recommended that the Directors for 1936 be empowered to enter into an agreement with the Garrison Officers' Mess Committee for 1936 regarding the use of rooms by the Institute and charges for refreshments at evening meetings.

This was approved on a motion made by Capt. A. Landale, seconded by Col. E. R. Knight, V.D., and carried.

Garrison Theatre Night

The Directors recommended that, if considered advisable, a Garrison Theatre Night be held during 1936 providing it meets with the approval of the District Officer Commanding and is desired by the Officers Commanding the units in the Calgary garrison.

Moved by Capt. G. D. C. McEwen, seconded by Lieut. H. E. Wright, that the recommendation of the Directors be adopted.

C. O. T. C. Scholarships

The Directors recommended the continuance of an Institute Scholarship for C.O.T.C. Cadets, amounting to \$75, subject to any conditions that the incoming Directors may make with University authorities in consultation with the District Officer Commanding, M.D. No. 13.

Moved by Lieut. M. H. Robinson, seconded by Lieut. R. Jackson, that this procedure be adopted.

Affiliated Branches

The Secretary read the report of the Red Deer branch covering the past year.

The Institute has met all the requests for speakers for this branch and has arranged for necessary expenses of these gentlemen in visiting Red Deer.

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The President stated that the Red Deer branch is always glad to welcome members to address them.

Tribute to The Press

It was moved by Lieut. S. L. Miller, seconded by Major A. J. Davis, that a vote of thanks be extended to The Calgary Daily Herald and The Calgary Albertan for their co-operation and assistance during 1935. Carried.

Mr. P. Egan— Palace Theatre

It was moved by Lieut. S. L. Miller, seconded by Lieut. H. G. S. Franks, M.C., that a letter of thanks be sent to Mr. P. Egan, of the Palace Theatre, for his kindly assistance during the year.

Nomination of Officers for 1936

The Secretary reported that in accordance with the Constitution and By-Laws (Section VII), all members had been notified of same and requested to forward their nominations. No nominations had been received through this channel.

The President had appointed a nominating committee, which had submitted the following nominations.—

Patrons

His Excellency, The Governor-General of Canada.
Hon. Col. The Hon. W. L. Walsh, Lieutenant-Governor of Alberta.
Rt. Hon. W. L. Mackenzie King, P.C., C.M.G., Prime Minister of Canada.
Hon. Col. Rt. Hon. R. B. Bennett, P.C., K.C., L.L.D.
Capt Hon. Ian MacKenzie, Minister of National Defence.
Major-General E. C. Ashton, C.B., C.M.G., V.D., Chief of the General Staff.
Major-General C. F. Constantine, D.S.O., Adjutant-General.
Lieut.-General Sir A. C. Macdonnell, K.C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O.
Major-General A. H. Bell, C.M.G., D.S.O.
Major-General the Hon. W. A. Griesbach, C.B., C.M.G., D.S.O., V.D.
Colonel James Walker, V.D.
Hon. Colonel the Hon. Patrick Burns.

It was moved by Lt.-Col. D. Ritchie, M.C., seconded by Brigadier D. W. B. Spry, O.B.E., V.D., that the list of patrons as submitted be approved. Carried.

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Honorary President

Brigadier D. W. B. Spry, O.B.E., V.D., District Officer Commanding, Military District No. 13. Carried unanimously.

Honorary Vice-Presidents

Colonel G. E. Sanders, C.M.G., D.S.O.
Lt.-Col. J. N. Gunn, D.S.O., V.D.
Colonel D. G. L. Cunningham, M.C., V.D.
Major L. W. Miller, D.S.O.
Lt.-Col. D. Ritchie, M.C.
Lieut. H. C. Farthing, K.C.
Colonel E. R. Knight, V.D.
Lt.-Col. D. H. Tomlinson, M.B.E., V.D.
Major J. W. Littleton, M.C.

Moved by Mr. W. St. J. Miller, seconded by Major H. Strachan, V.C., M.C., A.D.C., that the above officers be appointed Honorary Vice-Presidents for 1936. Carried.

FOR PRESIDENT:

Lt.-Col. H. Pryde

FOR VICE-PRESIDENT:

Lt.-Col. N. D. Dingle.

HON. SECRETARY:

Major A. J. Davis.

TREASURER:

Lieut. S. L. Miller.

DIRECTORS:

Lt.-Col. A. C. Cooper Johnston, M.C., V.D.
Lieut. H. E. Wright.
Lieut. T. E. Burns.
Lt.-Col. C. W. Devey.
Capt. N. A. Campbell.
Lieut. R. Jackson.
Major V. R. Jones.

HON. CHAPLAIN:

Hon. Capt. the Very Rev. H. R. Ragg.

HON. LIBRARIAN:

Capt. W. P. Taylor.

The report of the nominating committee, as above, had been presented to the Directors, who recommended it in its entirety for adoption.

It was moved by Col. E. R. Knight, V.D., seconded by Major L. W. Miller, D.S.O., that the slate of officers, as recommended by the Directors, be appointed.

**Vote of Thanks
to Major Littleton**

It was moved by Capt. A W Scott, seconded by Col. E. R. Knight, V.D., and unanimously carried, that a vote of thanks be extended to Major Littleton and the Directors for their work and leadership during 1935.

Lt.-Col. H. Pryde was then invited by Major Littleton to take the chair, the latter wishing him every success, and asking the members to continue to the incoming president and directors the co-operation and support they had in the past so readily given.

Lt.-Col. Pryde then took the chair and thanked the members for the honour conferred upon him in electing him as President.

The meeting adjourned at 10.15 p.m

* * * * *

Red Deer Branch

During 1935 the Red Deer branch of The Alberta Military Institute carried on its work with eight meetings addressed by speakers as follows.

January 23, Major J. K. Lawson, The North-West Frontier of India; February 12, Mr. E. V. Robbins, the Spanish-American War; February 26, Lieut.-Col. J. C. Stewart, Employment of Artillery; April 2, Lieut.-Col. G. P. Elliot, Abyssinia; April 25, Mr. E. A. Corbett, Redskin and Brown Pelts; May 21, Brigadier D. W. B. Spry, O.B.E., V.D., Canadian History, 1868-1870; June 10, Major W. T. H. Cripps, Cromwell; June 28, Captain Scott, Scottish Wars of Independence.

The membership at the end of the year was composed of: President, Captain R. S. Gillespie, M.C.; Vice-President, Captain J. Ballyntyne, M.C.; Secretary-Treasurer, Major W. T. H. Cripps; Directors, Lieut.-Col. R. C. Lister, M.C., M.M., V.D.; Major W. J. Botterill; Captain C. R. Bunn; Flying Officer S. D. F. Roe; Captain J. Drever; Lieut. F. de C. Callender; Lieut. R. Whyte; Lieut. E. Hives; Lieut.-Col. G. P. Elliot; Lieut. R. E. Jones; Lieut. C. D. Husband; Lieut. J. Welsh; Lieut. H. E. Haste; Lieut. A. Allen; Lieut. E. G. Johns.

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ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE

Revenue Statement for Year Ending 31st December, 1935

RECEIPTS

Membership Dues	\$1,678.00
Grant—Department of National Defence	500 00
Interest	252 88
Armistice Ball—Receipts	\$ 694.50
Less Expenses	680 10
	14.40

DISBURSEMENTS

Garrison Officers' Mess—	
Proportion Current Membership Dues	\$ 546.00
Lectures, etc.—	
Expenses of Speakers, Refreshments and	
Dinners	\$ 298.25
New Year's Reception, 1935	38 10
Vimy Dinner—Expenses	\$ 545.49
Less Receipts	514.50
	30.99
	367.34
Alberta Military Institute Cadet Corps	255.63
Scholarships—University of Alberta C.O.T.C.	75 00
Grants—	
King George V. Silver Jubilee Cancer Fund	\$ 25.00
Alberta Provincial Rifle Association	25 00
Canadian Legion Christmas Dinner Fund	10.00
	60 00
Annual Journal for 1934—	
Cost of Printing, etc.	\$ 465 96
Revenue from Advertisements	447 50
	18.46
Affiliated Branches	4.00
General Expenses—	
Clerical Help	\$ 420.00
Circulars and Notices to Members	177.96
Library	100.00
Printing and Stationery	53.57
Postage	46.47
Audit Fees	30.00
Gratuities	20.00
Accounts Receivable Written off	18 00
Depreciation on Office Equipm't and Pictures	16 11
Presentations	15.00
Wreaths and Flowers	14.50
Telegrams, Exchange, Revenue Stamps, etc.	15.48
	927.09
Total Expenses for 1935	\$2,253.52
Surplus for Year 1935 Carried to Balance Sheet	191.76
	\$2,445.28
	\$2,445.28

Audited and found correct:

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ALBERTA MILITARY INSTITUTE

BALANCE SHEET - 31ST DECEMBER, 1935

ASSETS		LIABILITIES	
CASH—		Prepaid Dues—1936	\$ 19.00
Bank Balance—Current Account	\$277.24	SURPLUS ACCOUNT—	
Bank Balance—Savings Account	24.73	A.M.I. Balance as at 1st January, 1935	\$5,874.32
Cash on Hand	41.00	Profit for Year 1935 as per Revenue Statement	191.76
		Surplus as at 31st Dec. 1935	6,066.08
Accrued Interest Receivable	\$ 342.97		
Accounts Receivable	83.93		
Bonds and Savings Certificate at cost	18.00		
Par Value	5,123.50		
Market Value, Dec. 31, 1935	\$5,500.00		
Library	431.18		
Office Equipment and Pictures	85.50		
	<u>\$6,085.08</u>		<u>\$6,085.08</u>

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Watson, W. J., Lieut.
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Whiffen, H. E., Major.
Whyte, G. H., Lt.-Col., M.C.
Willson, A. G., Capt.
Wright, H., Lieut.
Wynn, R. M., Lieut.

**The last word
in refreshment**

A. B. C.

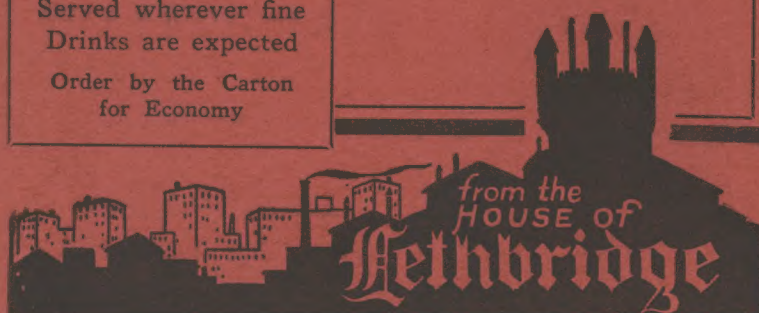
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